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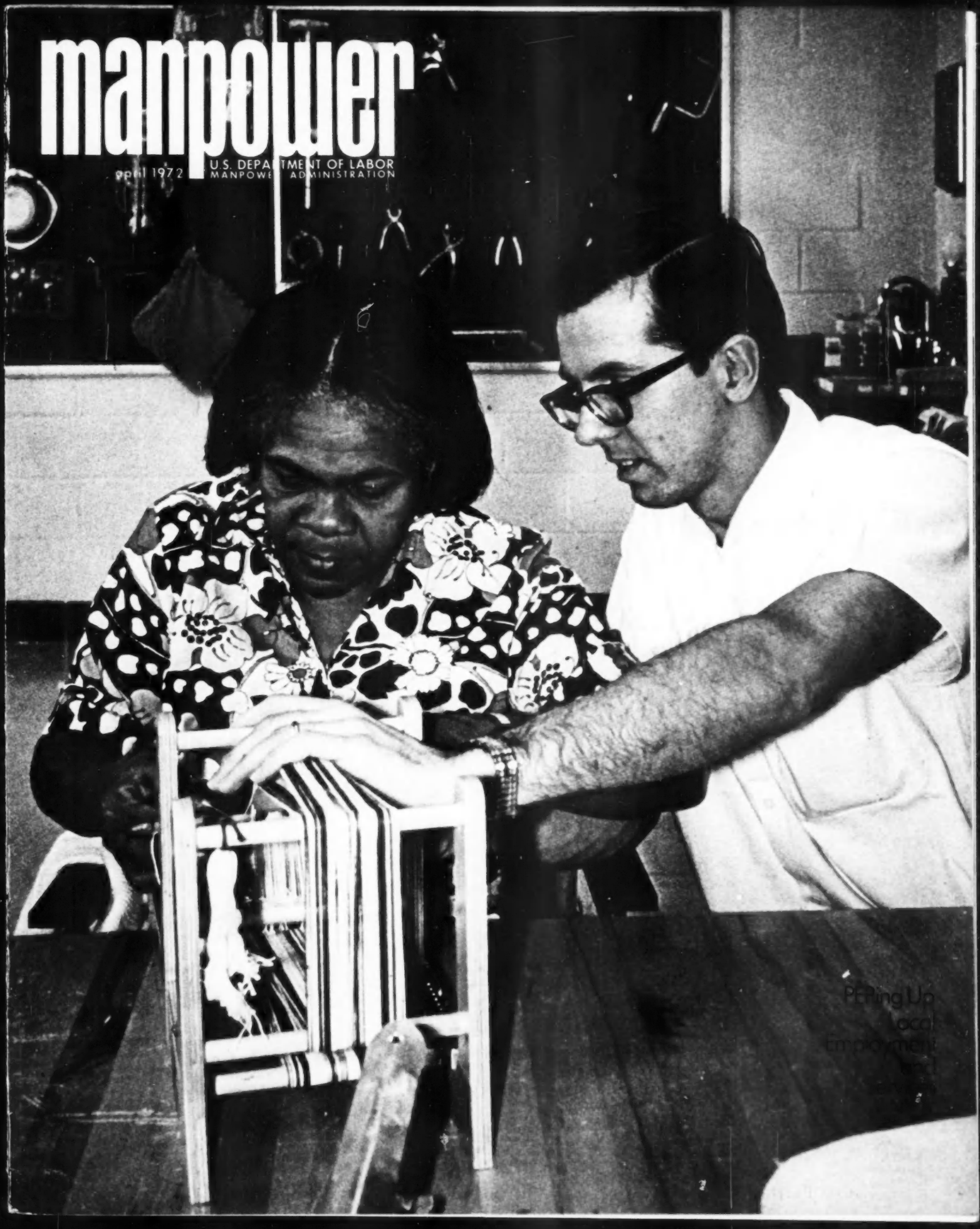

PEPing Up Local Employment

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Those Not So Wide Open Spaces

The United States today is indisputably an urban society. And in recent years national attention has focused tightly on urbanization and its attendant difficulties, sometimes to the point where rural America almost seemed to disappear from view. But if there is hardly anyone living out there in the countryside, it will come as news to the Census Bureau. Its latest nose count turned up almost 54 million rural citizens. The U. S. Department of Labor has a slightly different definition of rural, and reckons the rural population at 45 million. By either count, however, rural America clearly is far from a museum piece.

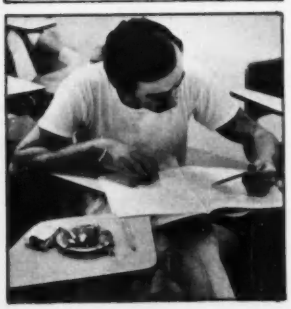
Not only do a substantial number of people live in rural areas, but their problems can be severe. Their education, training, and job-skill levels are lower than those of their urban counterparts, and they are more apt to be living in poverty.

That the number of farm jobs has diminished sharply over the past 20 to 30 years, largely due to mechanization, is pretty common knowledge. The surprising fact is that nonfarm jobs actually are increasing faster in rural than in urban areas.

The increase in rural jobs, however, does not always come in those areas where unemployment is greatest. And out-of-work rural people do not automatically migrate to where the jobs are. They tend instead to follow in the footsteps of relatives and friends who have gone before them, a route that often takes them to congested urban areas where jobs already are short.

Rural-to-urban migration patterns—how they have developed and how they might be changed—is one of the subjects Dr. Ray Marshall, director of the Center for the Study of Human Resources at the University of Texas, examines in an article beginning on page 14. Dr. Marshall also looks at the need for better statistics on the rural job market and labor force, the results of experimental relocation projects, some promising new programs of the Rural Manpower Service, and a variety of other matters that touch on *Manpower Policies and Rural America*.

Ellis Rottman



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J. D. Hodgson
Secretary of Labor

Malcolm R. Lovell, Jr.
Assistant Secretary for Manpower

Paul J. Fasser, Jr.
Deputy Assistant Secretary for Manpower and Manpower Administrator

Ellis Rottman, *editor*
Emil Michael Aun, *associate editor*
Patricia Marshall, *assistant editor*
Richard Mathews, *art director*

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PEPing Up Local Employment and Services

by Emil Michael Aun

Public Employment Program Adds Variety of Workers to Government Payrolls

Two extra deputy sheriffs are now protecting the citizens of San Patricio County, Tex. In St. Louis, 57 security guards—53 of them Vietnam veterans—are preventing vandalism in the schools. Berkeley, Calif., has a long-sought ombudsman to help people entangled with the city bureaucracy. The Chicago Board of Education has improved services for both parents and children in its huge Spanish-speaking community. And National City, a California community of 43,000, has added 60 new employees to its regular staff of 216 to beef up park, recreation, fire protection, zoning, and building inspection services.

These are among the 145,000 new jobs established through the Public Employment Program (PEP), authorized by the Emergency Employment Act of 1971 and administered by the U.S. Department of Labor's Manpower Administration.

"Programs we have never been able to schedule before we now have planned for completion," said Sherman Stenberg, assistant city manager for National City. "PEP employees are carrying out programs people need but the city couldn't afford to undertake."

Among these programs are:

- Developing four new park sites.
- Fully manning the fire department. The city has two companies each with three separate crews. A new man has been added to each of the six shifts to meet insurance requirements.
- Strengthening zoning enforcement. The additional manpower will enable the city to do a better job of checking zoning violations and help head off further inner-city blight.
- Improving building inspection. "We can eliminate a backlog and do preventive inspection work we couldn't do in the past."
- Expanding recreation activities. Roughly one-fourth of the city's population is Mexican American. "We have hired specialists for programs of special interest to minority youth right in their neighborhoods," said Stenberg.

While PEP is helping local communities like National City, it is also opening up new opportunities for the men and women hired. Many were unemployed for months, some were underemployed. (Under the EEA, underemployed means a person who works full time and earns less than a poverty-level income or who works part time and is seeking full-time employment.) PEP has put them to work, has made training available to them so they can get ahead, and is opening the door to permanent positions within local civil service systems.

91 Percent Were Unemployed

H. C. Warren, of Cobb County, Ga., for example, had been out of work 3 months and had been unable to hold down a steady job for several years, because of physical handicaps. A combat engineer in World War II and an airman in Korea, Warren, 48, who has a wife and six children, worked steadily after leaving the service and was employed for one 5-year stretch at the Ford assembly plant near his home. But after a shotgun accident 9 years ago that tore off part of his leg, he couldn't seem to settle down. He became something of a drifter: "I'd hold down a job as long as I could, then I'd have to quit," he said. "It was one thing after another."

Since November, he and four other PEP participants have been employed as $380-a-month maintenance workers for the Cobb County Parks and Recreation Department. "We're now 3 months ahead of last year on our maintenance work," said James Oates, director of Parks and Recreation. "This is especially important when you consider that we had three new parks that just recently opened, and we were way behind in maintenance."

Whatever fears Oates may have had about hiring a disabled worker have proved groundless. "Warren is doing real fine," he said. "Losing part of his leg doesn't affect his work whatsoever. He's able to work full time and gets right in there with the rest of them and stays with it."

"Without this program, me and the other fellows would still be out walking the streets," said Warren.

A study of 45,000 people hired under PEP showed that 91 percent were unemployed and 9 percent underemployed. Nearly 40 percent of the total sample had been out of work 15 weeks or longer; 35 percent were disadvantaged, and 30 percent were blacks or other minorities. Some 72 percent were men, 22 percent had less than a high school education, 16 percent had college degrees, 16 percent were over 44, 11 percent were under 22, and 10 percent were welfare recipients. Veterans accounted for 47 percent and 30 percent were Vietnam-era ex-servicemen.

A city was the employer in 42 percent of the jobs, a county in 32 percent, a State in 10 percent, and other kinds of local government units in 16 percent. The average PEP employee was earning $3.03 an hour.

An analysis of the first 101,000 jobs established showed that 23 percent were in public works and transportation, 18 percent in education, 12 percent in law

Mr. Aun is associate editor of MANPOWER.

enforcement, 11 percent in health and hospitals, 7 percent in parks and recreation, 6 percent in social services, 5 percent in environmental quality, 3 percent in fire protection, and the remaining 15 percent in administration or other fields.

Generally, most of the jobs created under PEP involve performance of the ordinary public services usually associated with State and local governments. And some of these jobs are being filled by people who found it difficult or impossible to compete in the regular labor market. But some PEP jobs are anything but routine; they are challenging assignments held by trained professionals. One such professional is Adela Coronado, 37, a University of California graduate who moved to Chicago last year. An experienced Spanish-speaking teacher and community development specialist, she was snapped up by the Chicago Board of Education in December as an instructor for one of its new bilingual, bicultural centers. A Chicano herself, she is eager to help cut the school dropout rate among the Spanish-speaking, which she says is now 70 percent in Chicago.

Miss Coronado is one of 154 PEP employees who have helped the Chicago Board of Education develop better services, according to Michael Quinn, coordinator for the city's federally funded school programs.

A year ago, according to Quinn, the Board of Education and Spanish American leaders worked out a program calling for two bilingual, bicultural community centers for recreation and for educating preschoolers and adults and tutoring dropouts. Help was sought from the U.S. Office of Education under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA).

Some $300,000 in ESEA money was allocated, about half of what was needed. That was early last fall. Then the school system received PEP funds which enabled it to fully staff both centers, each of which now has eight community aides, eight teachers, one janitor, four preschool teachers, and a director. "It was beautiful, the way the whole thing came through and fell into place," said Quinn.

Nor was that all. Chicago's schools have about 60,000 Spanish American students and lacked bicultural, bilingual teachers. With the aid of the Spanish community, bilingual teachers, teacher aides, and school aides were hired and placed in the schools. Most of the teacher aides are former teachers from Spanish-speaking foreign countries, who could not get their degrees validated in Illinois and who have been underemployed as clerks and office workers.

To further remove cultural barriers, the school system hired 13 community representatives for liaison work between schools and parents. Another 10 community residents were hired as security aides to help the off-duty policemen the city normally employs to protect school property.

"This security phase is a thing of the future," said Quinn. "We want to create a greater awareness by the community and the school staff that this is our school. Let's not abuse or damage it so it can't serve us."

Chicago was "rather slow in implementing the program," Quinn acknowledged. "But we wanted community involvement. We set up a Latin American advisory board to help us select the right people. It has been eminently successful."

So, on a smaller scale, has been Sheriff Wayne Hitt's experience with PEP in San Patricio County, Tex.

San Patricio is large, 680 square miles, and rather sparsely populated, 47,000

New York used PEP funds to hire Vietnam veteran Gabriel Rodriguez to help administer the program. He is a clerical unit team leader with the Human Resources Administration, the city agency that runs the local PEP.

Prince George's County, Md., used some of its PEP funds to hire illustrator Joel Gebler for the Community Renewal Program.

. . . most of the jobs created under PEP involve performance of the ordinary public services usually associated with State and local governments. And some of these jobs are being filled by people who found it difficult or impossible to compete in the regular job market.

New policeman David Fulgham of Greenbelt, Md., listens intently to a training class lecture. Fulgham is a 25-year-old Vietnam veteran.

"Absolutely a beautiful job, if you like people and problem solving," says Berkeley ombudsman Ezra Parrott.

Sheriff Wayne Hitt (right) of San Patricio County, Tex. talks with John Sexton (left) and James Craigmile, the two deputies he was able to hire through PEP.

Vietnam veteran Jonathon DeVoe photographs a police cruiser that was involved in a minor accident. DeVoe says his job as a photographer and technician in the National City, Calif., police laboratory is "exactly what I was looking for."

Sprucing up Nickajack Park near Atlanta is one of H. C. Warren's duties as a maintenance worker for Cobb County. Without his PEP job, Warren says, he "would still be out walking the streets."

Ann Deblinger (left), a clerk assistant in the Periodicals Division, helps a patron check the card catalogue in the New York Public Library.

Ambulance technician Langford Anderson, a former Army paramedic now working for the Bladensburg, Md., Fire Department, talks with a policeman at the scene of an emergency call.

Mary Jones checks some of the medical records she handles as a computer console operator at Prince George's County (Md.) Hospital.

"I can't tell you how pleased I am this money became available so we can give the people of this county more efficient law enforcement by qualified personnel."

people. "We have a lot of burglaries and some cattle rustling," Hitt said, "and we have to go after it night after night after night."

He needed more men—"I was hurtin', I was desperate"—but the county had no money. PEP enabled him to add two deputy sheriffs last October to his staff of eight field deputies.

He assigned one of the new men, James A. Craigmile, a 40-year-old Korean conflict veteran and an experienced law enforcement officer, to a relatively heavily populated area that had been inadequately patroled in the past. The other new deputy, John Sexton, 22, a former State highway patrolman, was assigned to night utility duty. Both earn $567 a month.

"I can't tell you how pleased I am this money became available so we can give the people of this county more efficient law enforcement by qualified personnel," said Hitt. "Frankly, I could use four more."

Funds Allocated Quickly

The first EEA funds in the Nation were allocated last August 14, only 5 days after President Nixon signed the $1 billion appropriation, and hiring began August 16. More than 94 percent of the funds are being spent for wages and employment benefits for enrollees. The rest goes for administration, training, and supportive services. The money is allocated according to a formula reflecting the amount and severity of unemployment in each area. The act permits one-third of those hired to fill professional positions, and limits compensation to any participant to $12,000 annually from PEP funds.

The goal of the act is to place unemployed and underemployed men and women in transitional jobs with States and local governments which will enable them to move into permanent employment in the public or private sector. Training and related manpower services also are provided. The program further enables these governments to meet pressing needs for services in such areas as public works and transportation, education, law enforcement, health and hospitals, parks and recreation, and fire protection.

Probably one of the most unusual jobs filled under the EEA is that held by Ezra L. Parrott, a black, 41-year-old veteran who left the Air Force in 1967 with the rank of tech sergeant, after 20 years' service including duty in Alaska, Japan, Okinawa, Spain, and Korea. Four years later, he had bachelor of arts degrees in philosophy and psychology from the University of California at Berkeley.

But when he graduated in June 1971, California was suffering from high unemployment and nobody was hiring, "particularly at the professional level." For 5 months he was unemployed, and he had a wife and son to support.

Finally in November he was hired by the city of Berkeley under the PEP program as a "citizens' assistant" or, as he is more popularly known, an ombudsman, a newly created job.

"I receive complaints by the citizens—usually against the city government—and try to resolve them," Parrott explained. His salary is $901 a month and he calls it "absolutely a beautiful job, if you like people and problem-solving."

As an example of his work, a white man complained to him that he wanted to set up an auto repair business but a building inspector asked him to make a number of structural changes at the proposed site he could not afford. He contended that the black garage owner whose employ he had just left had not been compelled to meet similar requirements, and this was reverse discrimination.

Parrott discovered the man was absolutely right, though the unfairness had not been deliberate on the part of the building inspectors. They simply had not gotten around to inspecting the other place. "It was my job to convince him that equality of the law doesn't mean equality to break the law," he said. "So the black is being required to bring his building up to standards and the department has tightened its enforcement procedures."

Handicapped Veteran Hired

At least one State is making a special effort to hire the handicapped. That is Montana. Of 684 PEP placements in the State by the end of January, 34 percent were handicapped. One is a former Marine sergeant, James R. Miller, 21, who lost both hands in Vietnam when an enemy soldier tossed a grenade at his feet. "I picked it up and didn't throw it away fast enough," he said.

He is now a $534-a-month deputy sheriff for Richland County. The mechanical hands with which he was fitted at Oakland Naval Hospital permit him to drive a standard four-wheel pickup car. "I do everything a deputy sheriff will do," he said.

His superior, Sheriff Harold Grinolds, backs up that statement. "He's like any other deputy," he said. "He serves papers, makes arrests, handles prisoners, investigates accidents, and answers complaints."

Miller went on the Richland County payroll in September after a year of being unemployed.

Two of the handicapped Montana PEP workers are quadriplegics—people who have lost the use of all their limbs. R. F.

Byrant, 29, whose condition resulted from an accident at age 16, had never before been able to land a job, despite having a master's degree in guidance counseling. He is now a youth counselor for the town of Ronan on the Flathead Indian Reservation. His job is to keep Indian children in school. The school at which he works has built special doors, ramps, a telephone, and a desk so he can get his work done.

The other quadriplegic, Kenneth R. Warren, 23, also had never worked, and was on welfare. He lost the use of his limbs 6 years ago in a car accident. He is now an assistant map maker for Blaine County, uses mechanical contrivances to brace his arms, and travels in a wheelchair and an automobile fitted with special hand controls.

Many PEP projects are building education or training into the jobs to enable participants to better themselves by moving into higher paying permanent jobs either in government or the private sector. According to Michael Quinn, the former teachers from Spanish-speaking countries who are now working as teacher aides in Chicago will be given a chance to earn their teaching certificates. Arrangements have been made for them to leave school early 2 afternoons a week to attend courses and earn credits at Chicago State College.

Much the same thing is happening in Albuquerque, N. Mex., where David Benjamin, 20, and Alfonzo A. Anzures, 21, a Navy veteran, have been hired as probation officer assistants. Their task is to help Indian offenders avoid going back to jail. They are getting on-the-job training and are scheduled soon to carry small caseloads of their own. More important to their future, perhaps, is that the city has arranged for them to carry 9 credit hours per semester in sociology and social psychology at the University of Albuquerque for at least 4 semesters. PEP is picking up the bill for half the cost. The city will pay the other half.

Not all careers, of course, require college training. PEP employees like Jonathon DeVoe of National City are absorbing skills and techniques on the job that will enable them to qualify later for permanent positions. After completing a 4-year hitch in the Navy in December, DeVoe, 24, registered with the State employment service so he could collect unemployment compensation. "But they offered me this job and it was exactly what I was looking for," he said.

Transition Plans Prepared

The job was a chance to work in the police laboratory as a technician and photographer for $3.16 an hour to start. Although he had no professional experience in the field, DeVoe had long been interested in photography and had taken a college course in it. Most of his work is in the laboratory, processing and printing pictures taken by city patrolmen who carry cameras in their cars. "They get to the scene of a crime first and can get the best pictures," he said. Sometimes, however, he gets outside assignments and then the action picks up. "The other day I covered a bank robbery."

Many local and State governments are already making plans to move PEP enrollees from their transitional jobs into permanent public employment. Portland, Oreg., has recruited under PEP as firefighter trainees 36 young men not qualified to pass civil service exams for entry firemen. They are being trained to qualify for permanent jobs with the city or one of the numerous suburban fire districts in the area.

Prince George's County, Md., has created new jobs in its budget for the next fiscal year beginning July 1 to accommodate 27 of the 35 PEP employees now on its payroll. Prince George's has used three of its PEP jobs to establish an Office of Veterans Affairs to find employment for ex-servicemen and to locate housing for veterans attending the University of Maryland and two other colleges in the county. Jobs had been located for about 100 veterans by the end of February.

Even if its PEP appropriation, which ends this fall, is not renewed, Cobb County, Ga., plans to absorb most of its present employees. "We're set up so all PEP jobs are built right into areas where we were short-handed and anticipated a need for permanent positions," said county personnel director W. B. Carson. "PEP enabled us to staff a year early. We plan now to absorb 45 of the 48 people we hired." Cobb County is expanding rapidly in population and in a recent referendum citizens approved a $5.25 million bond issue for parks and recreation.

The short-range financial prospects of other jurisdictions do not look so bright, however. National City, for example, with a very high rate of unemployment because of aerospace shutdowns in the area, foresees only a slight increase in income next year, according to assistant city manager Stenberg. In all probability, it cannot increase its work force out of its own funds. If PEP funding stops, the newly created jobs probably will have to be eliminated. "But when we get vacancies in existing civil service jobs, the PEP people are right here in training, and can move right into the openings," Stenberg said. □

"We're set up so all PEP jobs are built right into areas where we were short-handed and anticipated a need for permanent positions. PEP enabled us to staff a year early. We plan now to absorb 45 of the 48 people we hired."

"There are 'hidden dissuaders' that keep the disadvantaged out of public jobs, like time delays and complicated forms and procedures."

Opening Public Jobs to the Disadvantaged

by Barry S. Bader

Personnel Specialists Learn to Combat Civil Service's 'Hidden Dissuaders'

For a week, the 17 men and women in the National Civil Service League's Fellowship Program had been hearing advice from experts on how to bring the disadvantaged into public service employment. The 17 were specialists in personnel and employment work for cities, counties, and States around the country, and had a keen interest in modifying artificial civil service barriers to admit blacks and other minorities. Now one of them had a tough question for Warren Tilghman, the program's 33-year-old black director.

"Warren, we've heard some really good things in the past week—recruiting in the minority community, analyzing jobs, training the disadvantaged, and so on—but what good is it all when the guy in charge doesn't even know he has a problem?"

"We've all encountered the same obstacle," said another, "a supervisor who doesn't recognize his operation's failings."

"Let me relate something I once did in that situation," Tilghman replies. "I came into a jurisdiction—and I won't mention the name to spare embarrassment—to look at their personnel operation, and I'd made sure the Governor had sent out letters to all the supervisors I'd be seeing.

"Well, they had a bureau of vital statistics—you know, where they kept birth records and marriage licenses and all—and their clientele was about 70 percent black and Spanish-speaking, but they didn't have a single minority on the staff. In fact, the whole municipal building where they were located had one Spanish-speaking person, who was attached to the Department of Human Resources and floated from office to office whenever somebody needed a translator."

Tilghman lets the point sink in. "So I made an appointment to see the director of this office. I walked in on time, 9 a.m., but I was dressed in a sport shirt, no tie, no jacket, and I hadn't shaved. I was just a black customer. Instead of going toward the back, to the director's office, I walked up to the counter. All these white people were sitting or walking behind the counter, and I waited there about 10 minutes. Finally one woman came up to me and said, 'What do you want?'

" 'I want to see the director,' I said very politely.

" 'You'll have to wait.'

" 'Okay, I'll wait.'

" 'You can't wait here. You'll have to wait out in the hall.'

" 'Okay, I'll wait in the hall.'

"So I went out into the hall, and it's almost 9:15 now. I could see the director pacing back and forth in his office, waiting for this guy the Governor wanted him to see.

"Well, I waited out there about 20 minutes and then I caught the director's eye. And I waved to him. And he waved back. And then I pointed to my watch, and he got an expression on his face: 'Oh, God.'

"So I came back to his office and told him what had happened, and right there he knew he had a problem. He didn't need any more convincing."

This was the kind of practical approach to solving personnel problems the 17 participants heard about during their 2 weeks

Mr. Bader is a writer-editor with the National Civil Service League.

Public Jobs *continued*

in Washington last October. They were among 75 personnel professionals from local and State governments the League —a nonprofit citizens' organization devoted since 1881 to fostering management efficiency, quality, and economy in government at all levels—brought to Washington last year under its Fellowship Program.

The Fellows included recruiters, job classifiers, test designers, employment counselors, personnel administrators, and directors—the people who make their local and State governments function from day to day. They were selected from hundreds of applicants by the League project staff with the aid of officials from the Office of Economic Opportunity (OEO) and the Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD), which funded the program.

The participants were chosen because they were regarded as key people in the local or State government for which they worked and because their employers seemed receptive to changes in hiring practices. For 2 intensive weeks they were exposed to the League's storehouse of public personnel management know-how. They heard lectures by League staffers, Federal officials and program officers, experts from Washington's "think tanks" and universities, and other specialists.

But these experts did not monopolize the sessions. The Fellowship Program emphasized two-way communications—like when Curt Gatlin, an OEO manpower specialist, addressed the October group.

"To paraphrase Vance Packard," Gatlin begins, "There are 'hidden dissuaders' that keep the disadvantaged out of public jobs, like time delays and complicated forms and procedures. When I was running a Federal manpower program to get jobs for the disadvantaged we concentrated on private firms because they could hire people without long delays and a lot of procedural requirements. If the Federal Government was discouraged about moving the disadvantaged into public jobs, imagine the outlook of the disadvantaged jobseeker who is all alone."

Why don't governments change these procedures to allow the disadvantaged into the system? "Probably because they perceive the poor as not having what government wants," Gatlin says. There is

Program director Warren Tilghman plans a Fellowship session with National Civil Service League staffers (seated, left to right) Martin Held, Paul Harris, and Sylvia Proctor.

Job restructuring is the subject as Civil Service League instructor Fred Banks holds forth at a Fellowship session.

no disagreement from the class.

"Let's identify some of these hidden dissuaders," Gatlin continues. "First, what are the attitudes of government people about the poor? Not *your* attitudes, but the attitudes of government people you've observed and worked with."

"Poor people are not motivated; they must be led by the hand," says Heudillard Fitzgerald, manager of the Nevada Employment Security Department's Las Vegas office.

"The poor are perceived as the 'clients' of government services rather than as the 'givers,' especially in some of the social agencies," adds Verna Banks, an administrative trainee for the City Personnel Department of Sacramento.

Procedures Too Complicated

The perceptions pour in. The class knows them well, for most have bristled when they heard them in their own offices.

"The poor don't want to work."

"Poor people know where we are, let them come to us."

"They'd rather be on welfare."

"All right," Gatlin says, "now let's turn the coin. What are the attitudes of the poor? How do they perceive the public service as an employer?"

"The city has no jobs," replies Walter Stebbins, assistant chief examiner for the Dayton, Ohio, Civil Service.

"The jobs don't pay enough," a classmate chimes in. "When you add welfare to the other benefits, like food stamps, medical care, clothing allowance, and housing, you lose money by taking a low-paying public job."

"There's a lot of distrust," says Danny Brown, senior personnel technician for Savannah, Ga., "because many poor people see the police as typical of the government's attitude, and the police aren't always the best representatives."

"The procedures are too complicated, so why bother," says Steve Szalay, administrative aide to the city manager of Hanford, Calif.

Gatlin interjects: "In one city I know of, if you wanted to be a janitor, you had to take a test, and then you had to wait 6 months to get the results. And you had to pay $3 to take the test."

"Long waits for civil service certification often discouraged the poor from applying," another participant says. "The civil service winds up recruiting from the ranks of the employed, who can wait, rather than the disadvantaged without jobs, who need work immediately."

Gatlin has been assuming almost a spectator's role, mostly chalking the comments on the blackboard. Now he steps in again. "All right, these are the hidden dissuaders—the ways some government workers perceive the disadvantaged and the ways the poor generally see the public service. Now, recognizing these differing perspectives, what can governments do to bring the disadvantaged into public jobs?"

Gatlin suggests several ways to combat the hidden dissuaders; and the participants follow up with ideas of their own:

- The disadvantaged must be actively recruited; the civil service can't wait for them. Recruiters should contact minority groups, go to community centers, contact local leaders.
- Recruiters must be sensitive to the hidden dissuaders. They must convince disadvantaged applicants that although the government may not have wanted them before, it will treat them fairly now.
- Recruitment reforms must be accompanied by changes in selection criteria and the overall selection process. The time gap between application, testing, and certification must be minimized.

The discussion turns to more specific means of making personnel systems responsive to the disadvantaged. The participants exchange various techniques tried in their own areas: Recruiting centers in minority communities, aides to help applicants fill out complicated civil service forms, tutoring, and other ideas.

Gatlin asks the class members if their agencies use local Community Action agencies to help in recruiting. Not a hand is raised, but Szalay says he is going to start and others nod agreement.

As the participants exchange ideas for recruiting and selecting the disadvantaged, it becomes obvious that the techniques of modernization are less elusive than the strategies and arguments which can persuade mayors, city managers, and personnel directors that the disadvantaged can perform public jobs and that those jobs should be opened to them.

Ralph Velasquez, chief examiner in San Bernardino, Calif., sums it up: "Basically, we have to change attitudes to change the system."

The spirited dialogue that characterized Gatlin's session also marks the lecture of Dr. Aurelius Abbatiello, director of examinations for the city of Chicago. Written tests have been under increasing fire as a discriminatory device that bars blacks and other minorities from civil service jobs they are qualified to perform.

"Remember, tests don't discriminate, people discriminate," says Dr. Abbatiello. "Tests are only a measure. It's how you use them that matters."

Abbatiello discusses a U.S. Supreme Court decision (Griggs vs. Duke Power Co.) that requires private employers to test people's job qualifications, not their general education. He explains how to validate tests, that is to ascertain if test scores are good predictors of performance on a specific job, and warns that jurisdictions which don't validate their tests may face court suits charging discrimination.

Exams Don't Reflect Jobs

When Abbatiello notes that inaccurate job descriptions often make it difficult to design examinations, Stebbins points out a similar problem: "Jobs can change overnight, but it may take years to redesign an exam." Stebbins says job descriptions are too broad because description writers try to write as few descriptions as possible and apply them to a lot of positions.

"That makes it ridiculous to try to design an exam for that description," says another participant.

Szalay contributes a possible solution: "When we design exams, we have better results by talking with people actually working in these jobs, finding out what they do and have to know, rather than by using the paper job descriptions."

When Abbatiello's session is completed, the participants not only have reviewed the rudiments of employment testing, they also have shared their own problems and experiences with testing and examinations, and thus have widened their own jurisdictions' use of tests as a personnel tool.

The Fellowship Program is an outgrowth of the first section of the League's Public Employment and Disadvantaged Project, which laid the groundwork for the League's involvement in helping State

Public Jobs *continued*

and local governments modernize their personnel systems to ease hiring of the disadvantaged. Funded jointly by OEO and the Manpower Administration, the project began in April 1969 and its primary objectives were to research the field of public jobs for the disadvantaged and to study extensively certain specific local and State governments.

Under subsequent extensions of the project, funded by OEO and HUD, the League gave technical assistance to governments whose personnel systems were studied, held workshops and conferences on employing the disadvantaged, and created the Fellowship Program. Total Federal funding will amount to some $1.1 million when the Public Employment and the Disadvantaged Project winds up in August, not including HUD money to pay for Fellowship participants from Model Cities projects.

Although the Fellowship Program has accounted for only a small fraction of the funding, it has relied heavily on the research and publications the League developed through the Public Employment Project. Among these are several reference files, and a model public personnel administration law to help State and local governments upgrade and modernize their personnel systems.

The League's research showed that public employers historically have underutilized the disadvantaged as a manpower resource. As the U.S. Civil Rights Commission reported in 1969, minorities in State and local governments have, on the whole, been limited to positions "characterized by few, if any, entry skills, relatively low pay, and limited opportunity to advance through the ranks by virtue of experience and demonstrated ability."

Minorities were concentrated overwhelmingly in certain "traditionally Negro" jobs, such as laborers, service workers, and janitors, and in many jurisdictions these positions were excluded from the regular civil service merit system, thus depriving the disadvantaged jobholders of job security, merit pay increases, and fringe benefits. While the Commission found some overt discrimination against the disadvantaged by State and local governments, it said the major problem was artificial entry criteria originally established to promote merit hiring.

Updating personnel practices benefits not only the disadvantaged, but the public services as well, for their manpower requirements will continue to increase sharply in the coming years. The 1971 MANPOWER REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT predicts that employment in State and local governments will increase from 9.6 million in 1970 to 13.5 million in 1980, and that "far more jobs are anticipated in State and local government in the 1970's than in any major branch of private industry."

The MANPOWER REPORT confirms the key findings of the League's studies that "State and local governments will need to reexamine their policies for recruiting, educating, training, and properly compensating their employees—present as well as prospective."

The League's research led to active involvement in stimulating public employment for the disadvantaged. Much of the League's work centers on technical assistance. But technical assistance, essentially a limited duration process guided by "outsiders" to the local environment, is neither a complete nor a long-range solution.

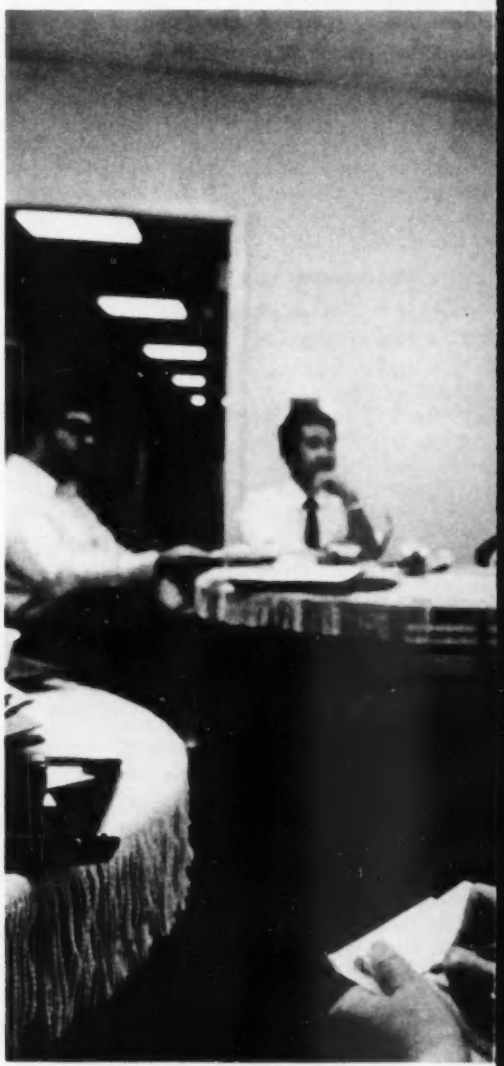
Program Structure Flexible

The Fellowship Program is designed to fill this void. It is flexibly structured so participants can relate course content to their own personnel systems. In addition to recruiting, testing, and writing job specifications, the topics covered include:

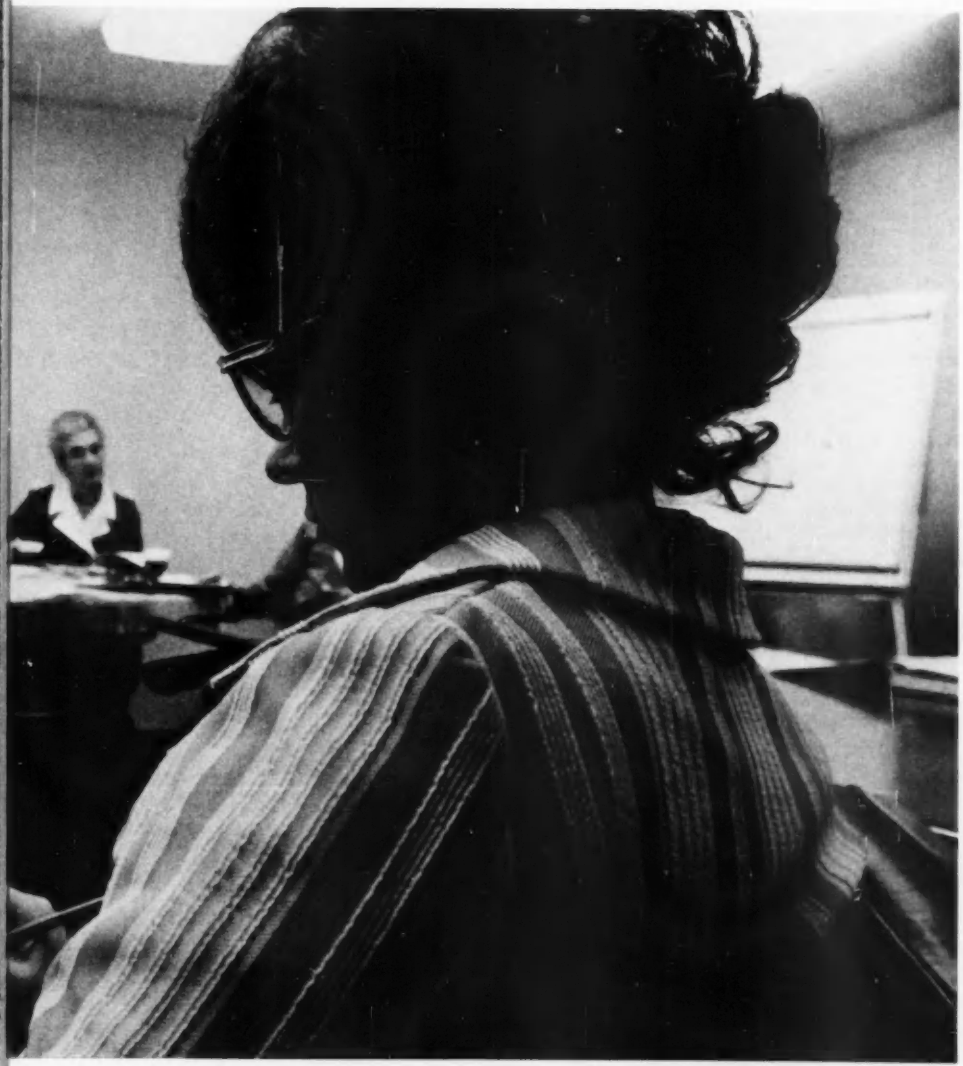
- The role of the personnel department.
- Comprehensive manpower planning and Federal manpower legislation.
- Training the disadvantaged.
- Job restructuring and task analysis.
- Career ladders as opposed to dead-end jobs.
- Negotiating techniques and strategies in public employment.

The program emphasizes action by participants when they return home, for it is they—and not League staff or Federal officials—who must meet the challenge of opening public employment to the disadvantaged.

"Frankly, we hope that the Fellowship Program is not over after 2 weeks," says Jean J. Couturier, executive director of the League. "We want to communicate to our Fellows the skills needed for change and also the motivation and some strat-

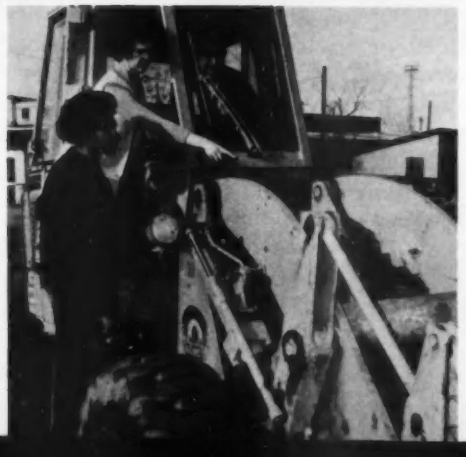


Back at work at the Sacramento City Personnel Office after attending the Fellowship Program, Verna Banks and coworker Cyril Gonzales (right) help an applicant fill out a form for a job under the Emergency Employment Act.



The notes Kay Jon Wiese took during the Fellowship Program are coming in handy now that she is back on the job as a personnel analyst for the city of Ogden, where her activities include setting up a training program to upgrade sanitation workers to heavy equipment operators.

Mrs. Wiese and trainee Tony Galloway get a demonstration in the use of an earth mover from superintendent of streets Jerry Reed.



egies for achieving change. I believe the Fellows leave Washington more impressed than ever with the urgency of making public employment systems open their doors to the disadvantaged. Most jurisdictions take pride in saying they have merit employment—employment based on ability—and yet they are barring many with potential and ability from their merit systems. Our Fellows have got to bring that point across in their own governments, and once they do, they can apply some of the skills they've learned here."

Change is a long-term affair, and the League does not expect its program to produce dramatically overhauled systems in a few months. Nevertheless, there is evidence of change.

Kay Jon Wiese, a personnel analyst for the city of Ogden, Utah, who attended the Fellowship Program last fall, says, "Things are happening already."

Ogden has appointed a black and a Chicano community representative with the police force, and Mrs. Wiese credits the League's Fellowship Program with providing some of the ammunition she used in working for the appointments. The representatives are opening lines of communication between the police and the black and Chicano communities, according to Mrs. Wiese, as well as recruiting minorities for the police force, helping train police cadets in dealing with minorities, and performing other community relations services.

Mrs. Wiese is putting her Fellowship experience to use in other ways, too. Under the Manpower Administration's Public Service Careers and Public Employment Programs, she is developing a plan to train sanitation street workers for better jobs using heavy equipment, such as pavers and sweepers. The plan calls for street workers to take 2 hours of work time during the day to learn to use the heavy equipment and to take other classes on Saturdays. The trainees will receive college credit for their classes and ultimately qualify for good paying jobs as maintenance men or equipment operators.

She also reports that the city manager has asked about a complete classification study of the city government. She knows that funding it will be a major problem. "But," she adds, "the really big change in Ogden is that questions are being asked where they were never asked before." □

Manpower Policies and Rural America

by Ray Marshall

One of the most widespread fallacies about rural America is that its population is decreasing drastically. In a sense this is understandable. The wholesale displacement of farm population has been one of the most striking developments since World War II. The proportion of farm residents to the total population declined from about 23 percent in 1940 to about 5 percent in 1970, and farm population declined from 30.5 million to 10.3 million during this period. But while the number of people living and working on farms has been declining, the rural nonfarm population has been increasing, with the result that the rural population remained at about 54 million between 1960 and 1970.

A companion misconception is that work opportunities in the countryside are declining along with the number of farm jobs. Actually nonfarm employment is growing faster in rural than in urban areas.

The rural work force in June 1971 was about 30 million out of a total work force of about 80 million and of these, only 3.9 million were employed in agriculture.

Unfortunately, however, many displaced farmworkers have not benefitted from the increase in rural nonfarm jobs. Often firms setting up shop in rural areas bring workers with them, attract employees from other areas, or "cream" the local labor market. Displaced farmworkers, with their general lack of industrial skills and poor educational backgrounds, are not the cream of the labor market. And little effort is being made to help prepare them for emerging farm or nonfarm employment.

Moreover, the best educated and most adaptable part of the rural population tends to move to urban areas, leaving behind people who are unable to compete in farming with large agri-businesses or to qualify for nonfarm jobs. In 1970, 45 percent of the rural population aged 25 and older had 8 years or less of education compared with only 25 percent of the same age group in metropolitan areas.

The main human resource development problem in rural areas is widespread underemployment and poverty. In 1969, one-half of the poor but only one-third of the population lived outside metropolitan areas. The poor constituted one-fifth of the rural, one-tenth of the city, and one-fourteenth of the metropolitan populations.

One of the first problems that must be considered in connection with policies and programs for rural manpower development is the inadequacy of the conceptual and statistical base of the word rural. There is no standard definition of "rural." The Bureau of the Census defines the rural population as those people living in places of 2,500 or less, while the U.S. Department of Labor defines the rural population as those people living in predominantly rural counties. Under the census definition (which unless otherwise specified forms the basis for figures used in this paper) the rural population was 53.9 million in 1970, while under the Labor Department's it was 45 million.

Definitions are of more than academic importance. How can we measure with precision rural industrialization, poverty, employment, or rural areas' fair share of manpower funds if the definition of rural covers urban fringes as well as open country? More and better statistics are needed on such matters as rural living costs, labor supply and demand projections, population profiles, work force characteristics, and job vacancies. Without such data it is very difficult to design and carry out education, training, and other programs that meet rural needs at the local level.

New Firms 'Cream' Local Labor Market

One of the strategies for attacking rural poverty calls for industrialization of rural areas to generate jobs for the unemployed and underemployed. This is being done in many places, through one or a combination of local, State, and Federal programs offering subsidies, tax breaks, or contract preferences to companies willing to establish plants in the countryside.

Because of these and other incentives—notably lower pay scales—many nonfarm industries are locating in rural areas, especially industries providing goods and services to agriculture or processing agricultural products. In many instances, however, this has had a very limited impact on the unemployed and underemployed because these firms are free to hire workers from outside and to "cream" by hiring the youngest and best educated people in rural areas.

A question for public policy is whether subsidized firms should be permitted to cream local work forces by establishing unrealistic hiring standards. Demanding a high school education for jobs that require minimum literacy, as some firms do, may simplify screening procedures but it bars many of the rural poor from good paying jobs and is a needless waste of human resources. If firms are subsidized on the theory that they are reducing unemployment and underemployment, perhaps the government agencies involved should insist that hiring preference be given to local unemployed or underemployed people who can do the work.

Where rural industrialization fails or is not feasible, it might

Dr. Marshall, professor of economics and director of the Center for the Study of Human Resources at the University of Texas, is a member of the National Manpower Advisory Committee.

be worthwhile to encourage development of agricultural and nonagricultural cooperatives and community development corporations controlled by the disadvantaged. These organizations could be subsidized partially by public funds, and with sufficient capital and technical assistance they could generate jobs as well as be advocates for the rural poor. Although such enterprises probably would not produce high incomes, they have considerable growth potential and could substantially improve living conditions for those they serve.

Many economic development experts believe that migration is the most effective remedy for labor surpluses in rural areas. Migration is necessary, so the argument goes, because continuing technological change in agriculture reduces jobs faster than industrialization creates them. This produces substantial outmigration from rural areas, especially during periods of full employment in the national economy. For a variety of reasons, however, "natural" outmigration has not been sufficient to reduce labor surpluses in many rural areas.

As a result, considerable support has built up for relocation programs as a better alternative than attempts to attract industry to areas with little economic potential, transfer payments, or a continuation of economically "irrational" migration patterns based mainly on following in the footsteps of friends or relatives rather than going where job opportunities are best. Relocation advocates favor a growth-center strategy: Moving people to places where business and job opportunities are expanding rather than leaving workers free to migrate to congested urban areas.

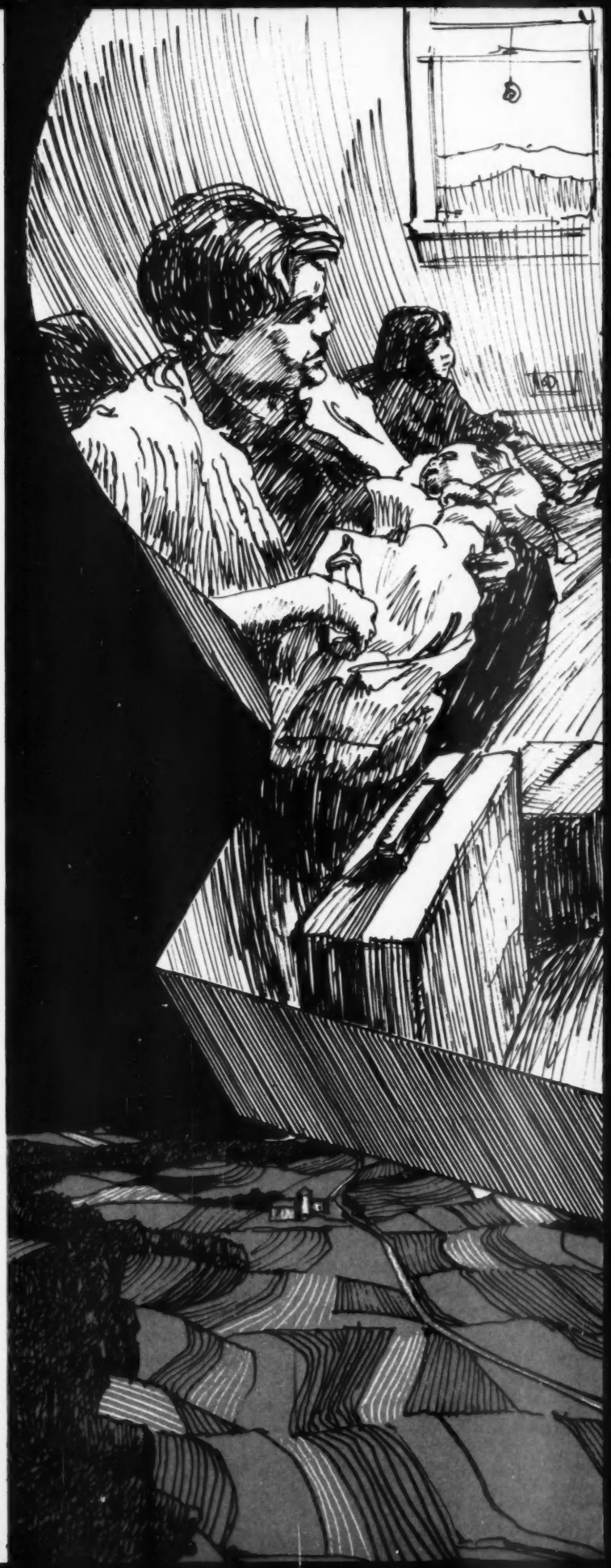
Pilot Projects Test Relocation

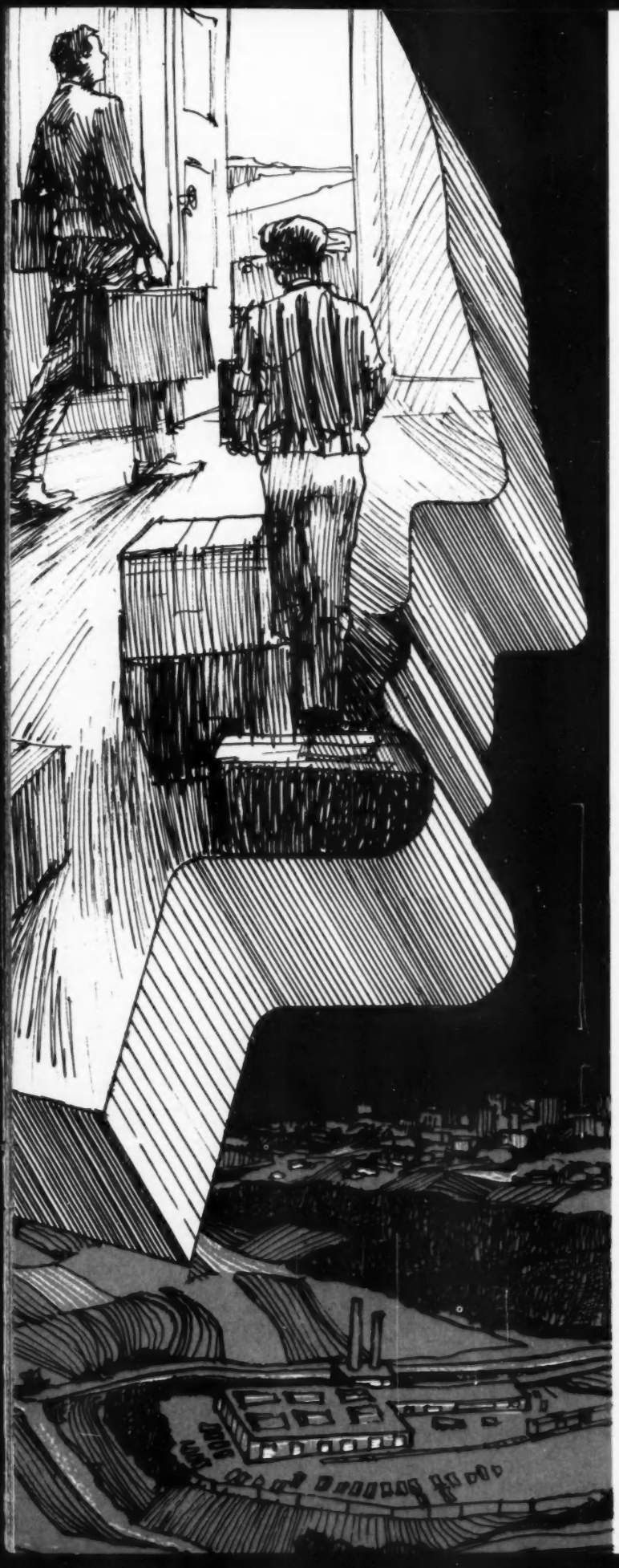
A series of relocation assistance projects funded by the Manpower Administration under the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) give us some insight into the effectiveness of this strategy. Between 1965 and 1969, these pilot projects relocated some 14,000 unemployed and underemployed workers and their families, mainly from rural areas, at a cost of about $800 per family.

Nine out of 10 of those relocated were men; 60 percent had dependents; 80 percent were white; one-half were between 25 and 44 years of age with one-third under 25. Although one-fourth had elementary educations or less, half had graduated from high school. Most movers had been unemployed for some time or were farmworkers earning under $1,200 per year. Sixty percent moved less than 300 miles, and only one-fifth, mostly skilled defense workers, moved over 500 miles. Nearly 60 percent of the moves were to cities under 250,000 population, and only 10 percent went to major metropolitan areas.

These projects made it possible to isolate some key factors facilitating mobility, including the value of tying workers to specific jobs before they are relocated. They also turned up the information that basic education and extensive skill training should generally precede any attempt to relocate low-skilled rural workers. And a wide array of supportive services before and after the move appears essential.

Displaced skilled and professional people, on the other hand, needed help only in locating jobs, and, in some cases, financial aid. Relocation of low-skilled workers who are harder to place and need more help is obviously of higher priority,





especially since many well-trained workers would move without assistance. Though some workers were willing to move without financial aid, 9 out of 10 received one or more loans or grants to help cover moving expenses and living costs.

The projects encountered a number of problems, especially involving loan repayment. Loans created administrative problems and placed financial hardships on the people being relocated. It became evident that it is preferable to make outright grants to help cover relocation expenses and the use of loans ultimately was eliminated except for workers who bought houses or automobiles.

Opposition to the projects cropped up in some rural areas from a variety of sources. Growers were against the relocation of their labor supply, even though many agricultural workers were underemployed or unemployed during off-seasons. Some industrial companies refused to give project directors the names of laid-off workers. Resistance was particularly strong to attempts to relocate younger, more productive workers and those with more skills, experience, or education. Politicians and civil rights organizations also criticized the relocation efforts.

Regardless of the stated aims of relocation projects, for such efforts to be deemed successful those who move must remain in their new locations and improve their conditions there. For the Manpower Administration projects, estimates of the number who returned home within 60 days ranged from 20 to 33 percent. And estimates of the number of those remaining who changed jobs within the first 60 days ranged from 20 to 60 percent.

Skilled Workers More Likely to Move

The Manpower Administration reported an improvement in retention from 70 percent in the 1965 projects to 88 percent in 1968. However, economic conditions in the receiving areas are a major factor in the success of relocation efforts. During 1970-71, for example, some of those who had been "successfully" placed earlier lost their jobs because of defense or manufacturing cutbacks.

There seems to be general agreement that the results were favorable for those who did remain in their new locations. Their employment was more stable and their earnings higher than control groups who remained behind. Relocation costs for those who remained were soon recouped, but it is not clear whether the gains for those who remained were sufficient to offset the costs of those who returned home.

Skilled workers had a higher propensity to move than others and were more likely to stay with their new jobs. Unskilled workers found it difficult to obtain jobs and to take advantage of the program. When relocation was combined with basic education and skill training, willingness to move was higher and the return rate lower. MDTA graduates and those with more dependents were more willing to move than others.

The projects' main influence on those relocated probably was to affect the timing and destination of their moves. In unaided moves, kinship and ethnic patterns are apparently a more important determining factor than economic opportunity. Migrants tend to move to where others like them have already moved, increasing concentrations of low-skilled workers

where an oversupply already exists. The relocation projects increased the economic rationality of the moves. Many of the demand areas showed remarkable ability to absorb workers with limited skills, although the most disadvantaged of the rural movers often had trouble finding and keeping jobs.

Relocation was strictly voluntary, of course, and many eligible workers did not want to move. Financial assistance apparently encouraged mobility and probably was even more important in the retention rate. Living allowances bridged the difficult time until the first wages were paid in the new location. But as important as financial assistance was, the availability of jobs and help in overcoming the problems involved in moving and resettling were more crucial.

The experiences of mobility projects seem to justify modestly positive conclusions. The successes were low cost, but definitive judgments require more information than is available on the proportions of retentions and returnees. Although some of those assisted might have moved on their own in the absence of the program, the limited resources available to all except the more skilled groups made it doubtful that many could have supported their own moves.

Efforts to Improve Services Described

Despite their apparent success, however, relocation programs have a number of limitations which make it hard to sell them to policymakers. Such projects tend to assist mainly the kinds of people who already are the most mobile. Moreover, it is not at all clear that many of those who are immobile would benefit more from relocation than from bringing marginal economic activity close to where they already live. Workers with limited education and work experience are likely to work in marginal jobs or return to rural areas even if they are relocated. And the relocation of more productive workers has a detrimental effect on the economic potential of the supply areas which must be balanced against the gains to the mover. Finally, relocation projects face opposition from local administrative and political officials who are not likely to want to see their areas depopulated.

Perhaps the most important organizational development to help rural workers in recent years was the change in the Manpower Administration's Farm Labor Service (FLS) to the Farm Labor and Rural Manpower Service in 1969 and to the Rural Manpower Service (RMS) in 1970. The RMS is trying to change the practices of the old FLS, which concentrated mainly on meeting the seasonal needs of farm employers while doing little to help farmworkers acquire nonagricultural jobs. The RMS is concerning itself with the needs of workers in the total rural setting rather than just in agriculture, and with gaining a greater share of manpower funds for rural areas.

These measures are movements in the right directions, but it will be hard for the RMS to shake the poor image of its predecessor and to eliminate the grower-oriented influences that apparently permeate its field operations. It is especially important for the RMS to get more Chicano and black staff members into the field, though its reputation with these groups is so bad that adding minority staff alone will not be enough.

Nevertheless, the RMS is experimenting with some promising programs to prepare rural residents to find and keep jobs. Operation Hitchhike, for example, seeks to reach remote areas by channeling manpower programs through existing rural institutions, mostly the county offices of the U.S. Department of Agriculture's Cooperative Extension Service. Another promising approach is the Smaller Communities Program operating in 19 States, which dispatches teams of trained State employment service specialists to carry manpower services into rural areas.

The Area Concept Expansion Program (formerly called the Ottumwa Plan) which seeks to link central manpower service centers in larger rural communities with feeder units reaching into the hinterlands, gives considerable promise of meeting some of the problems involved in delivering manpower services to thinly populated rural areas. Still another effort, Concerted Services in Training and Education, involves the Departments of Agriculture and Health, Education, and Welfare, as well as Labor. This plan is being tested in 14 States to show how job opportunities can be increased and communities improved through additional education and training coupled with economic development.

Although in fiscal year 1970 some 250,000 people in rural counties were enrolled in a wide range of work experience and training programs, manpower expenditures, like most other social outlays, have had an urban bias. Based on population, rural areas receive a less than proportional share of human resource program funds, except for elementary and secondary education (see chart). In part, this is because the problems of urban areas are more conspicuous, and the cities have more proposal-writing and administrative expertise. As a consequence, most rural residents apparently know nothing about manpower services.

One way to assure that rural areas get their fair share of manpower outlays would be to earmark for use in rural areas funds in the ratio of the rural to urban population (22 percent) or in the ratio of the rural percentage of poverty (32 percent). Unquestionably, this would be the simplest method. However, a number of questions might be raised about this approach.

First, it assumes an unreal dichotomy between rural and urban. Many people live in rural areas and work in urban areas, and vice versa. There are, moreover, rural-urban interactions which make it difficult to determine where manpower money should be spent in specific cases, such as mobility-related projects. Similarly, would labor market information systems to give rural people information about urban jobs (or urban employers information about rural people) be rural or urban?

Another problem would be establishing a rationale for a rural quota of manpower money that was consistent with manpower policies and objectives. For example, a major emphasis on manpower programs for rural areas probably would require a larger expenditure than warranted by a population or poverty ratio. Clearly, there are insufficient funds at present to meet the universe of need in either rural or urban areas. Would it not therefore be better strategy, if possible, to establish some priorities which would call for a concentration of funds on particular objectives rather than a categorical allo-

cation to rural or urban programs? Would a rural-urban split introduce inflexibility rather than greater flexibility in performing the total manpower function?

Another problem for the quota system might be that the particular kinds of program mixes needed in rural areas may or may not add up to the proportion of funds allocated to rural purposes. In some rural areas, for instance, the greatest need might be for welfare or economic development programs rather than manpower. If other agencies are meeting these needs, it would make little sense to allocate to them manpower funds which might be used more effectively in other areas.

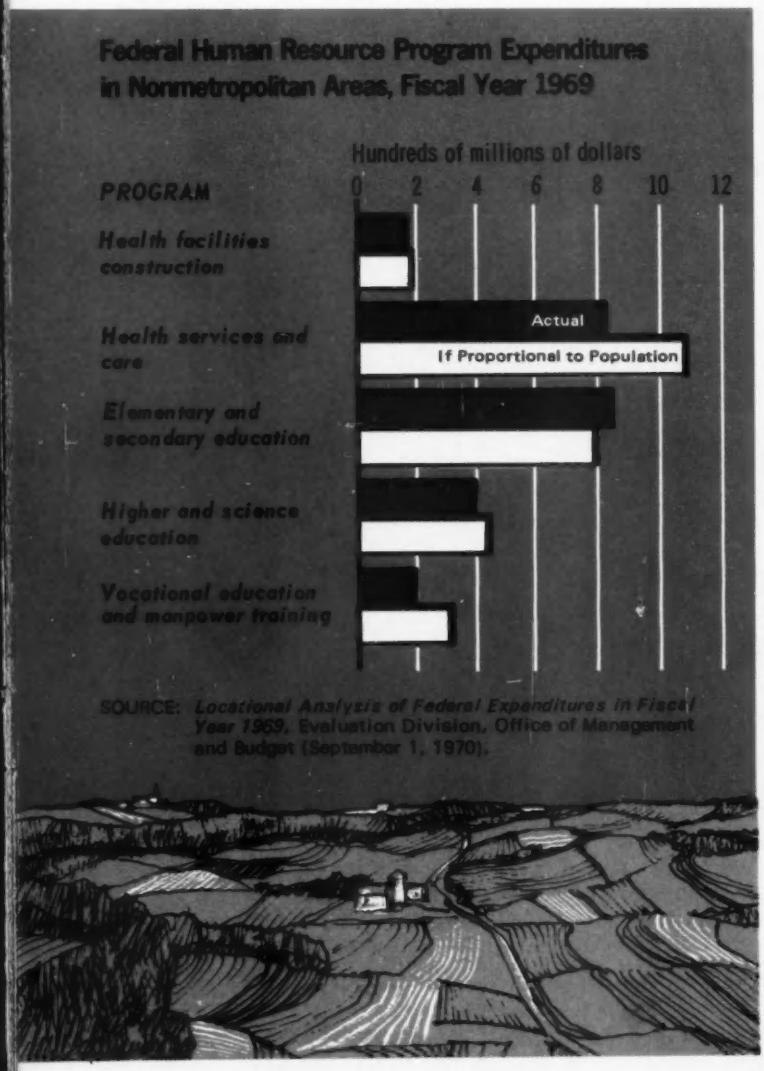
The foregoing are not meant to be conclusive arguments against the allocation principle, but merely to raise some questions about it. Probably the greatest argument for allocation is the intensity of need and the probability that the powerlessness of rural workers will make it unlikely that they can exert enough political pressure to get fair treatment in the absence of some arbitrary allocation.

Regardless of what shape funding takes, a number of other obstacles to effective manpower planning for rural areas have been identified. Foremost is program inflexibility, which discourages innovation, causes the unique needs of rural people to be ignored, and sometimes leads to awkward tries at fitting urban models to rural situations.

Another obstacle is poor coordination, with the result that interagency cooperation often is characterized by "lip service" instead of meaningful action. The Cooperative Area Manpower Planning System (CAMPS) is supposed to provide coordination but is often unsuccessful in overcoming political partisanship, vested interests, and other social and economic factors which cripple attempts to solve the problems of rural areas.

A number of solutions to such rural manpower problems have been proposed and some are under active consideration by the Rural Manpower Service. One that seems to have a great deal of merit would give additional funding to innovative projects designed specifically for rural workers, such as Operation Hitchhike and the Smaller Communities Program. Further experiments are also desirable in transportation, public service jobs, special work projects for Work Incentive Program enrollees, and mobility-related projects.

Another promising proposal would create greater program flexibility by permitting regional adaptations of rural manpower policy, using local community leadership to alter programs to fit local realities, and giving special attention to the problems of rural minorities. Finally, rural programs could be strengthened by the appointment of rural manpower advocates at the national and regional levels, and by special training and reorientation to permit farm labor personnel to become manpower development specialists with a special appreciation for the manpower problems of rural areas.



Better Vocational Education Needed

Closely related to training is the problem of education. Rural whites lag far behind their metropolitan counterparts in education and blacks are even worse off. Indeed more than three-fifths of all rural Negroes had less than 8 years of schooling in 1970.

For employment purposes, there is an urgent need to improve vocational education. In this connection, area vocational schools, which supplement vocational offerings in rural schools, seem particularly promising. These schools were financed through the Vocational Act of 1963 and have done a great deal to train rural people for nonagricultural jobs.

But rural education as a whole faces a number of difficulties, the most acute of which is lack of resources, despite the slight edge in Federal funding, based on population, noted earlier. Moreover, rural schools have not served minority groups very well, especially in the South, and have concentrated a disproportionate share of their resources on traditional agricultural subjects while inadequately preparing people for nonfarm jobs. It is doubtful that rural areas will be able to finance educational systems that will put their people on a par with those of urban areas. Since this is a problem affecting the whole country, it is hoped that the Federal Government will be able to find additional means of providing minimum educational support for all areas. □

News & Notes

The Labor Department and the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare are mounting a major effort to provide diagnostic screening for the blood condition called sickle cell. A program of blood testing, counseling, and education is being set at all of the Job Corps' 65 residential training centers, which enroll about 30,000 black youth. Sickle cell is an inherited blood problem which primarily affects blacks. About 2 million black Americans have sickle cell trait, a mild form. One of every 500 blacks is born with the much more serious sickle cell anemia, a chronic crippling disease which shortens the lives of its victims.

* * *

About 15,000 engineers and scientists requested job-matching services from the National Registry for Engineers during its first year, according to Manpower Administrator Paul J. Fasser, Jr. The Registry is a central file of job opportunities and job applicants set up by the Manpower Administration with the cooperation of the National Society of Professional Engineers and the California Department of Human Resources. The facility gives special employment help to engineers and scientists looking for jobs and to employers who need their services. Employers are encouraged to contact the Registry through a local office of their State employment service or by writing directly to the National Registry for Engineers, 800 Capitol Mall, Sacramento, Calif., 94514. The telephone is 916-449-2160.

* * *

A new catalog describing the Manpower Administration's research and development projects is now available. The catalog, "Manpower Research and Development Projects, 1971 Edition," is free on request from the U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Washington, D.C. 20210.

* * *

While total Federal employment declined by nearly 15,000 between May 1970 and May 1971, there was a net gain of 1,700 in minority group employment, according to a United States Civil Service Commission survey. Increases for minorities included 40 positions in the top GS-16 through 18 grade groupings of the General Schedule, and another 60 positions paying $26,000 or more annually under other pay plans. By May 31, Negroes, Spanish-surnamed Americans, American Indians, and Oriental Americans held more than 503,000 Federal jobs, representing 19.5 percent of the civilian work force, up from 19.4 percent in May 1970 and 19.2 percent in November 1969. Almost 9,000 additional minority employees moved into white-collar jobs during the survey period, representing more than 60 percent of the increase in this category.

* * *

The U.S. Department of Labor's Occupational Safety and Health Administration in the first 5 months of fiscal 1972 conducted 10,668 inspections in 9,817 establishments employing more than 1.8 million workers. Some 26,771 violations of job safety and health standards are alleged in 7,450 citations to employers in this period. Of establishments inspected, less than 1 in 4 were found to be in compliance with the law.

* * *

The National Urban League will prepare 2,180 minority workers in 42 cities for apprenticeship or journeyman status in construction unions under a new 18-month, $4-million contract with the Manpower Administration. Since August 1967 the League has placed nearly 5,000 minority apprentices in construction under the Apprenticeship Outreach Program. Under the Outreach Program, youth are recruited and tutored to prepare them for apprenticeship entry tests.

* * *

The proportion of blacks 20 years of age and older with high school degrees rose from 24 percent in 1960 to 39.7 percent in 1970, according to the Census Bureau. For whites, the figure rose from 45.4 percent to 61.8.

* * *

The National Machine Tool Builders Association will give on-the-job training to 1,550 people in 24 States under a new $1.2 million contract with the U.S. Department of Labor's Manpower Administration. Participants will be trained up to 26 weeks in such occupations as machinist apprentice, production machine operator, mold setter, tool maker, welder, service representative, and assembler. Under a previous contract the nonprofit trade association recruited almost 2,500 trainees, of whom more than 1,900 completed the program.

Britain's Changing Employment Exchanges

by Howard Carpenter

Ever since the first United States Employment Service was established in 1915 there has been considerable American interest in the operation of European labor exchanges. During World War I, the U.S. EMPLOYMENT SERVICE BULLETIN expressed indignation with the German employment service because it had "mobilized an industrial army to help the military army," and envy of the British Labour Exchanges because they enjoyed a monopoly on all job placements in England from the beginning of the war.

When the Federal Government assumed a major and permanent role in the job placement field with passage of the Wagner-Peyser Act of 1933, the U.S. Department of Labor went into a flurry of research to find out how foreign employment services operated. Practically all the studies concentrated on the British system, largely because its reports and bulletins were in the only language the researchers knew.

Great Britain's first Employment Exchanges—Labour Exchanges as they were then called—were set up in 1910 and have undergone little fundamental change since. Their main purpose was to bring together employers and people seeking work, but they were also intended to administer unemployment insurance. This latter aspect of their work was made especially important by the high level of unemployment between the world wars.

Like the United States Employment Service, the British system grew substantially in size and effectiveness during World War I and World War II. And, like the U.S. system, it gradually added other manpower functions. At times it has laid great stress on special services such as professional and clerical placements, and even had separate offices for these activities.

After World War II, though operating in a full employment economy, unemployment benefit work still predominated and the emphasis was on the problems of the long-term unemployed. Indeed, even the premises were designed primarily for this function. Though the Employment Service developed some new techniques, the public continued to associate the Ex-

Mr. Carpenter is an international relations officer with the U. S. Department of Labor.

changes with unemployment rather than employment, despite the fact that the Exchanges continued to make some 1½ million placements annually—about 20 percent of the national total.

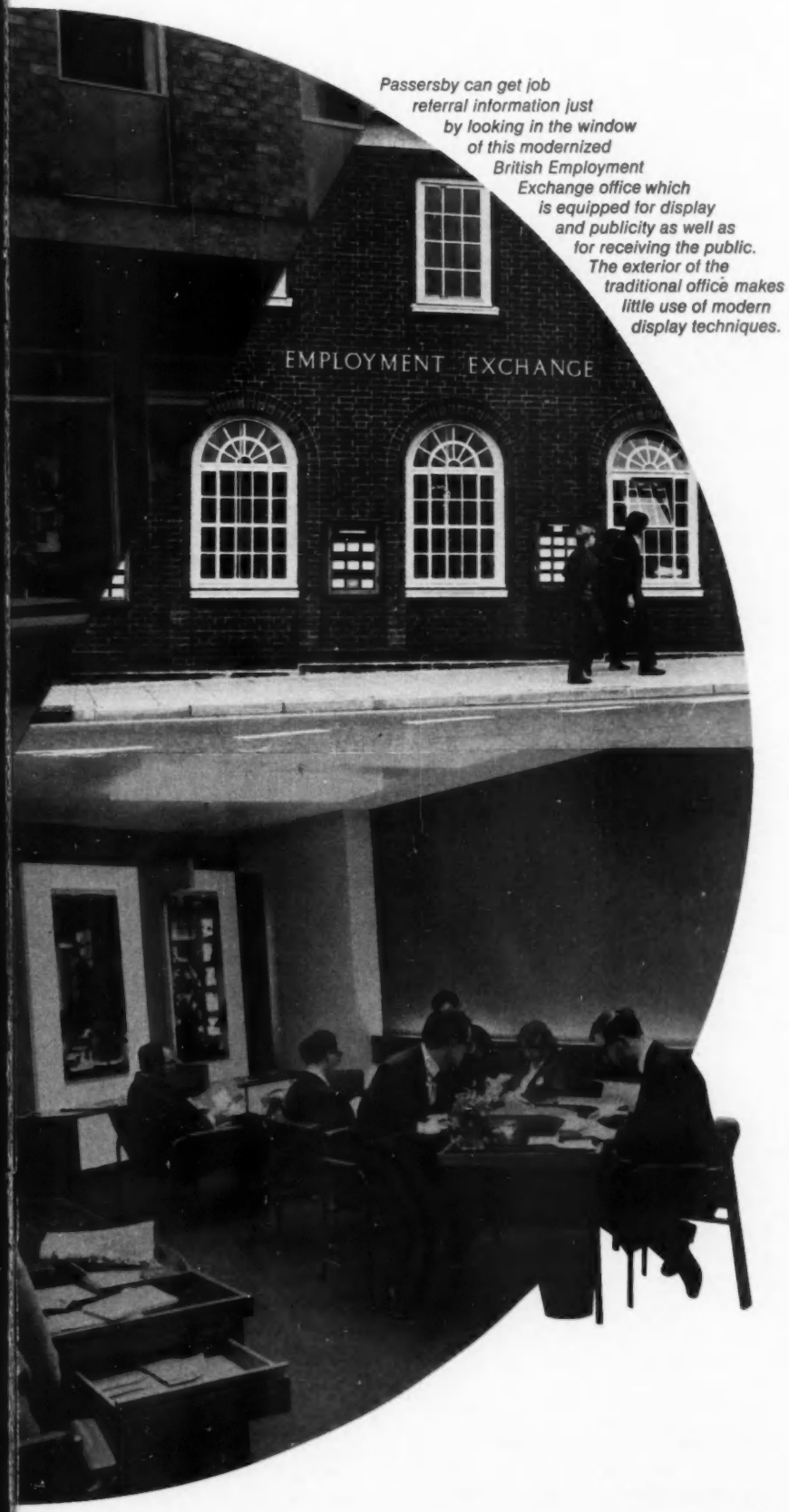
Now, after an 18-month soul-searching review, the Department of Employment has come up with a series of proposals designed to modernize the Employment Service to meet the needs of the labor market in the 1970's. The primary change proposed is a new management structure with direct and sole responsibility for meeting the needs of employers and workers, and having the authority and freedom to fashion the Exchanges to this end, by such measures as:

- Separating placement functions completely from unemployment benefits (separate building, except in small towns).
- Hiring better qualified interviewers or retraining existing staff so that they are better equipped to advise workers about jobs and careers.
- Concentrating on identifying employers' needs and meeting them rapidly and effectively.
- Introducing a new nationwide specialized service to meet employers' needs for executive, technical, scientific, and other professional workers.

The proposed professional service will restyle the current Professional and Executive Register which now operates in 45 of the largest of Britain's 1,000 Employment Exchanges. Although the Register makes about 13,000 professional placements per year, this constitutes only about 5 percent of the annual national total of professional job placements. Furthermore, it is an expensive operation. Overall, the average national cost of an Employment Exchange placement is $31.80, compared with $265 for each Register placement.

The Department considered the alternatives of dropping the Register altogether and thus abandoning all service to this group of applicants, or setting up a more effective service which would reduce costs per placement. The latter alternative was chosen and the surprise recommendation made that employers be charged a fee for each placement. A computer-based register would be set up on a nationwide scale to match applicants with job offers. Separate premises in large cities in the "best" areas of town, run by elite staffs,

The interview section of an "old style" British Employment Exchange office contrasts sharply with the same section in a prototype of the proposed new design.



Passersby can get job referral information just by looking in the window of this modernized British Employment Exchange office which is equipped for display and publicity as well as for receiving the public. The exterior of the traditional office makes little use of modern display techniques.

backed up by planned advertising campaigns, would be instituted to increase placements.

For decades, there has been a Youth Employment Service in Great Britain, which has handled all placement activity for those under 18 years of age. This has been a sizable task since until recently only a small elite of British youth went on to university-level education. This is beginning to change, however.

The Youth Employment Service has been run in most areas by local education authorities, and by the Department of Employment in the others. Since the number of children under 18 seeking employment is constantly decreasing, the Department of Employment has proposed that local education authorities continue to handle career guidance and provide a placement service, with the general employment service becoming responsible after the youngster has left school. This proposal appears to have elements of compromise; it avoids the case for bringing the Youth Employment Service entirely into a modernized, full-function general employment service.

For years, the majority of Employment Exchanges have been drab, institutional-looking offices located in back streets. Unless applying for welfare or unemployment benefits, many Britishers, whether workers or employers, never see or notice them. The Department of Employment recommends moving the Exchanges into well-designed offices along busy thoroughfares, and equipping them for display and publicity as well as for receiving the public. It is also planned to expand the existing computer job bank in London to the 10 next largest cities.

If the Employment Exchanges are to concentrate on placement, what will happen to the other functions that have been carried on in the past? Unemployment insurance and job training will be dealt with in physically separated premises. Employment Exchange interviewers will continue to advise job applicants about training opportunities.

Under the British system of government, the Department of Employment still must get fund approval from the Treasury to implement its proposals. This is no easy matter; nevertheless it appears likely that a new era is on the horizon for Britain's Employment Service. □

Putting More Work in WIN

The Work Incentive (WIN) Program will undergo major changes and substantial expansion as a result of recently enacted legislation. Amendments to the WIN section of the Social Security Act strengthen work requirements for people receiving welfare payments under the Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) Program and beef up the Federal share of WIN funding. Another new law affecting the WIN Program authorizes income tax writeoffs for employers who hire WIN participants.

WIN was created by 1967 amendments to the Social Security Act. It is designed to move able-bodied people receiving AFDC payments off the welfare rolls into jobs or training. It is jointly administered by the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and the U.S. Department of Labor's Manpower Administration through State employment services and welfare agencies.

The 1971 amendments, passed by Congress in December, raise the Federal share of WIN funding to 90 percent, reducing the States' share to 10 percent of total costs, to be paid either in cash or in facilities and services. Previously States paid 20 percent of total program costs for WIN manpower activities, as well as 25 percent of welfare supportive services and child-care costs, and 50 percent of welfare administrative expenses.

The legislation does set a limit, however, of $750 million in fiscal 1973 on Federal expenditures for WIN supportive services.

At present the State welfare agency refers people already receiving AFDC payments to the State employment service office for enrollment in WIN. Under the amendments, which go into effect July 1, 1972, every AFDC recipient must register for the WIN Program before qualifying for welfare payments, with the following exceptions:

- Children under 16 or attending school full time.
- The sick, incapacitated, or elderly.
- People so remote from WIN projects that effective participation is out of the question.
- People caring for sick or incapacitated members of their households.
- Mothers or other relatives caring for children under six.
- Women caring for children in homes where a father or other adult male is registered for WIN.

The Manpower Administration estimates that about 1.5 million welfare recipients will be required to register under the amendments. After individuals are registered, the State welfare agencies must give them the supportive services they need to accept employment or job training. These would include health services, vocational rehabilitation, counseling, and child care. The Manpower Administration will enroll in WIN only those people certified by the welfare agency as ready. The entire pool of registrants is too large to be serviced at once.

Each State welfare agency will be required to certify annually at least 15 percent of all registrants as ready for employment or training. States failing to meet this quota will have the Federal share of their welfare payments reduced accordingly. For example, a State that certifies only 14 percent of registrants will suffer a 1 percent loss in Federal payments. It is estimated that under the 15 percent requirement a minimum of 225,000 people would be enrolled in the WIN Program in fiscal year 1973. Those refusing work or training will lose their welfare benefits.

The new act authorizes Federal funding of public service jobs for AFDC recipients. These jobs will be substituted for Special Works Projects, a program that never really got off the ground. Public service employers may receive up to 100 percent of the costs of providing employment to a welfare recipient the first year, 75 percent the second year, and 50 percent the third.

The amendments require that at least one-third of all WIN funds each year be spent for public service employment and on-the-job training. Placement of WIN participants in classroom training of a type not related to jobs available in the area are prohibited. The Secretary of Labor will establish in each State, city, or other appropriate geographic area with a significant number of WIN registrants a Labor Market Advisory Council. These councils will advise the Labor Department on the types of jobs available or likely to become available in each area.

Both the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and the Department of Labor are required to have regulations implementing the amendments ready for publication by July 1. These regulations will guide both national and State welfare and manpower officials in administering WIN. They also will set out guidelines for establishment of national and regional coordinating committees.

The second piece of legislation bearing on the WIN Program, the Revenue Act of 1971, gives an employer an income tax credit equaling 20 percent of wages paid to a WIN participant during the first 12 months the employee is working. This is a dollar-for-dollar credit on the employer's computed income tax. The WIN enrollee must be a full-time employee and must stay on the job at least another year beyond the 12 months for the employer to receive the credit, unless the employee leaves voluntarily or becomes disabled or is discharged for misconduct as defined by the State unemployment insurance law. The tax credit provision includes carryover and carryback arrangements similar to those in the investment tax credit procedure. The tax credit went into effect January 1 and certifications of employers eligible for the credit by the Secretary of Labor will be issued soon. □

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Words & Figures

Manpower Expenditures For Fiscal Year 1973

Federal investments in manpower programs [1] are expected to increase by $849 million or 20 percent in fiscal year 1973 to $5.1 billion. In the past decade manpower outlays have risen by $4.8 billion. The Department of Labor will account for $3.4 billion, 66 percent of the total fiscal year 1973 manpower expenditures. The Department of Health, Education, and Welfare follows with an anticipated outlay of $1.1 billion, 21 percent of the total.

The largest increase in the manpower budget will occur in the Public Employment Program. The creation of jobs in State and local governments in periods of high unemployment will result in outlays of $1.1 billion in fiscal 1973 —up from $653 million in fiscal 1972.

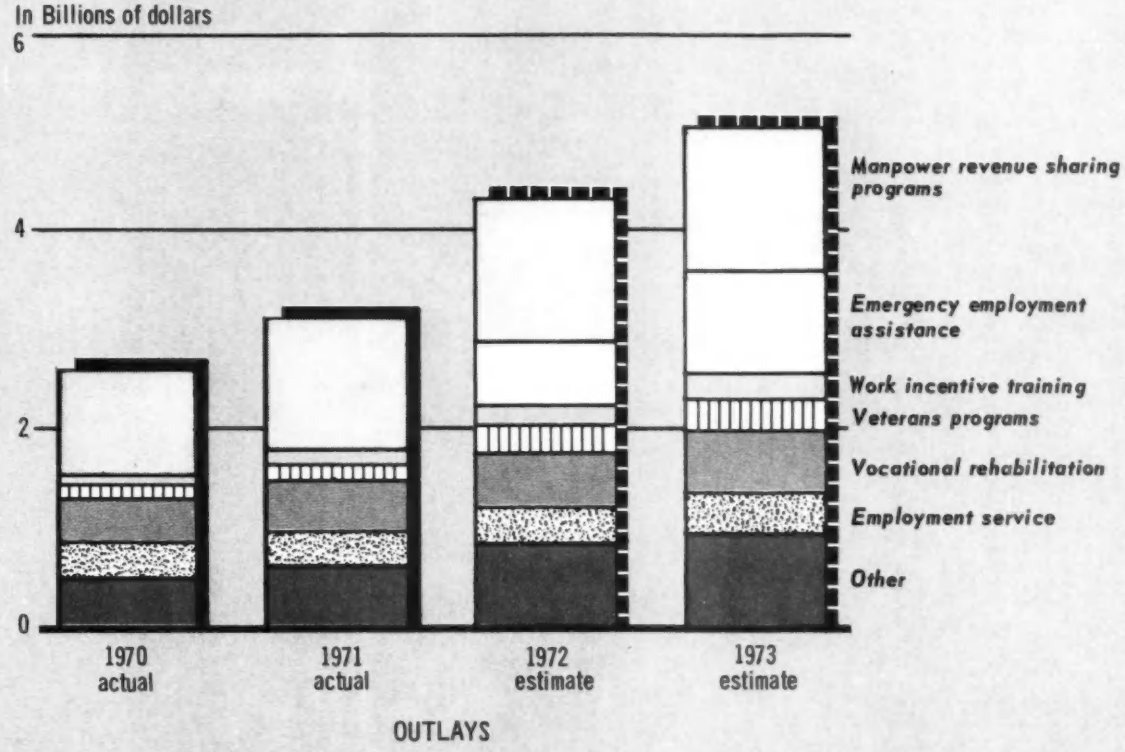
Returning Vietnam veterans will find increased opportunities for training in civilian occupations. Expenditures by the Veterans Administration alone will increase by $66 million to $320 million.

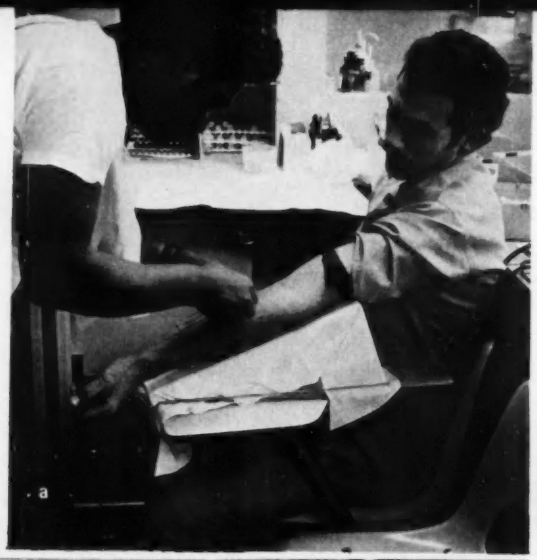
Substantial changes in the Work Incentive Program, including mandatory work registration requirement for employable welfare recipients, a public service employment component, and reduced requirements for State matching funds, will increase outlays by $75 million to $270 million.

The manpower revenue sharing programs—now categorical programs authorized under the Manpower Development and Training Act and the Economic Opportunity Act—comprise the single largest element in the manpower picture. They account for 29 percent of total proposed spending.

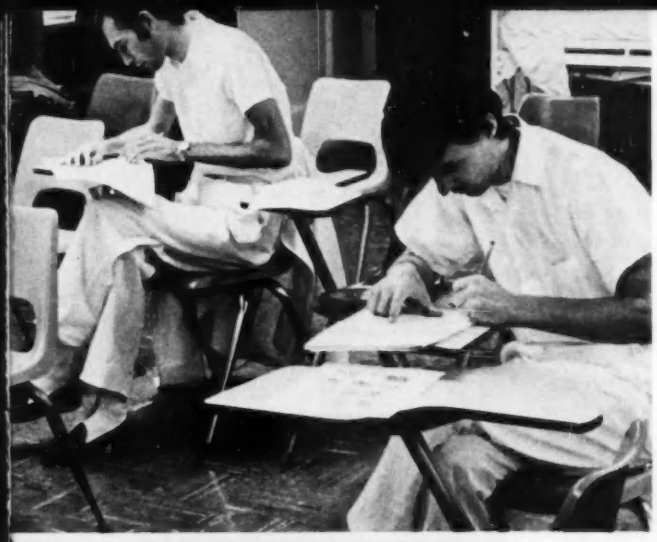
[1] This article was adapted from *Special Analyses Budget of the United States Government Fiscal Year 1973*, "Special Analysis J—Federal Manpower Programs."

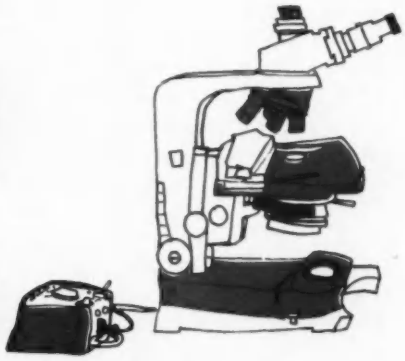
Manpower Outlays





New Routes to Laboratory Jobs





Modern medical care depends heavily upon the services of a little known army of workers—the people who work in medical laboratories. With continuing advances in medical science and burgeoning demands for health services, needs for lab workers have grown enormously.

But for some time, medical laboratories have had more jobs than people qualified to fill them. Part of the problem, the profession has discovered, was the narrow pathway leading into skilled laboratory work. To qualify for most jobs above the entry level, workers had to have formal training in accredited schools. Until recently, there was no other way most lab workers could move ahead.

One result was a massive waste of manpower. Thousands of persons in entry-level jobs piled up knowledge and skills in the lab but could not use what they learned to get better jobs. About 1,700 laboratory specialists have been discharged annually from the Armed Forces, but all too often veterans have found they could not meet educational requirements for civilian lab jobs, even though they have done the same kinds of work in military service.

To overcome such problems, the laboratory professions are starting to use proficiency examinations. Next month, these new tests of lab workers' abilities in four major laboratory areas—clinical chemistry, microbiology, hematology, and blood banking—will be given for only the second time. The examinations, which will be held across the country, are all 1-hour paper and pencil tests, and are free. The single eligibility requirement is that candidates must have applied by April 8. Each candidate may take one or more of the tests.

Next, pretests were held using laboratory personnel in independent labs and hospitals, including those of the Veterans Administration and the Public Health Service. The trial run was staged to turn up any ambiguities or other weaknesses in test questions. Test experts at the Educational Testing Service then polished the tests. This firm also is responsible for test administration.

A professional organization, the National Committee for Careers in the Medical Laboratory (NCCML), led in the development of the proficiency exams. Over a period of 2 years, NCCML received $280,000 from the U.S. Department of Labor's Manpower Administration in an experimental and demonstration program to cover the costs of test development, the administration of two pilot tests, and promotion of the tests' acceptance and use.

Constructing the tests was a major undertaking. The process was supervised by an NCCML subcontractor, the Educational Testing Service of Princeton, N.J. Technical experts in the medical lab field decided that proficiency would be measured against the requirements for medical laboratory technician, a post ranking midway between the lowest level jobs in the laboratory and jobs requiring a college degree. These experts also decided on content areas for each exam and wrote test items to reveal candidates' knowledge and abilities in each area.

Some 1,500 persons took the examinations when they were given for the first time late last year. There were 118 test sites in this country and overseas, including 24 military bases and two prisons. At one prison, most of the men taking

the proficiency examinations had learned their laboratory skills in a Manpower Administration inmate training program. This was at the Federal Bureau of Prisons' Medical Center in Springfield, Mo., a large hospital with bars which draws its population from all parts of the country.

The proficiency examinations not only measure laboratory skill levels and abilities, NCCML spokesmen say, but also help workers discover the areas in which they need more on-job training and experience. At the Medical Center, for example, men being released can use test results to show employers their skill levels. Men remaining in prison can continue in lab training with a better idea of what they still must learn.

Helpful as such testing is, however, it is only the first step in moving persons who lack standard credentials into skilled laboratory jobs. Acceptance by the health industry is vital if tests are to change actual staffing practices in medical laboratories. The new tests already have the support of professional organizations representing each proficiency area: The American Society of Clinical Pathologists and the College of American Pathologists (both are NCCML sponsors), as well as the American Academy of Microbiology, the American Association of Clinical Chemists, and the American Association of Blood Banks.

Other changes are underway. Up to now, Medicare and Medicaid regulations have relied heavily on formal training and professional society membership to judge competency in the laboratory. These regulations are being changed to make use of the new proficiency exams as an alternate way to establish credentials of lab workers. Proposed amendments to the Social Security Act also call for use of proficiency examinations in all health occupations for which its programs set star lards.

Federal, State, and local civil service agencies have expressed interest in using the exams as an alternate way to qualify workers at the medical lab technician level, NCCML staff reports. The largest number of affected jobs would be in public health posts or Veterans Administration hospitals.

Next month's proficiency exams will be the second and final set of pilot tests. Thereafter, the exams probably will be offered by the Educational Testing Service and, like other commercial tests, will be paid for by applicants' fees.

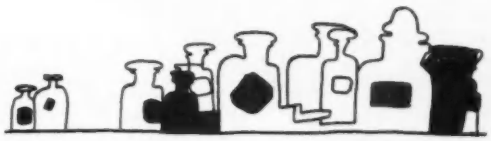
Meanwhile, Educational Testing Service is developing a different type of test—equivalency examinations which will be used to grant academic credit for off-campus learning of laboratory skills. Scheduled for completion by fall, these tests will be used in the College Level Examination Program (CLEP), whose tests in other college subjects are accepted by nearly 1,000 colleges to grant credit and advanced academic placement. This project, funded by the Division of Allied Health Manpower in the National Institutes of Health, will test in the same four areas now covered by the proficiency exams. NCCML is cooperating with NIH in this effort.

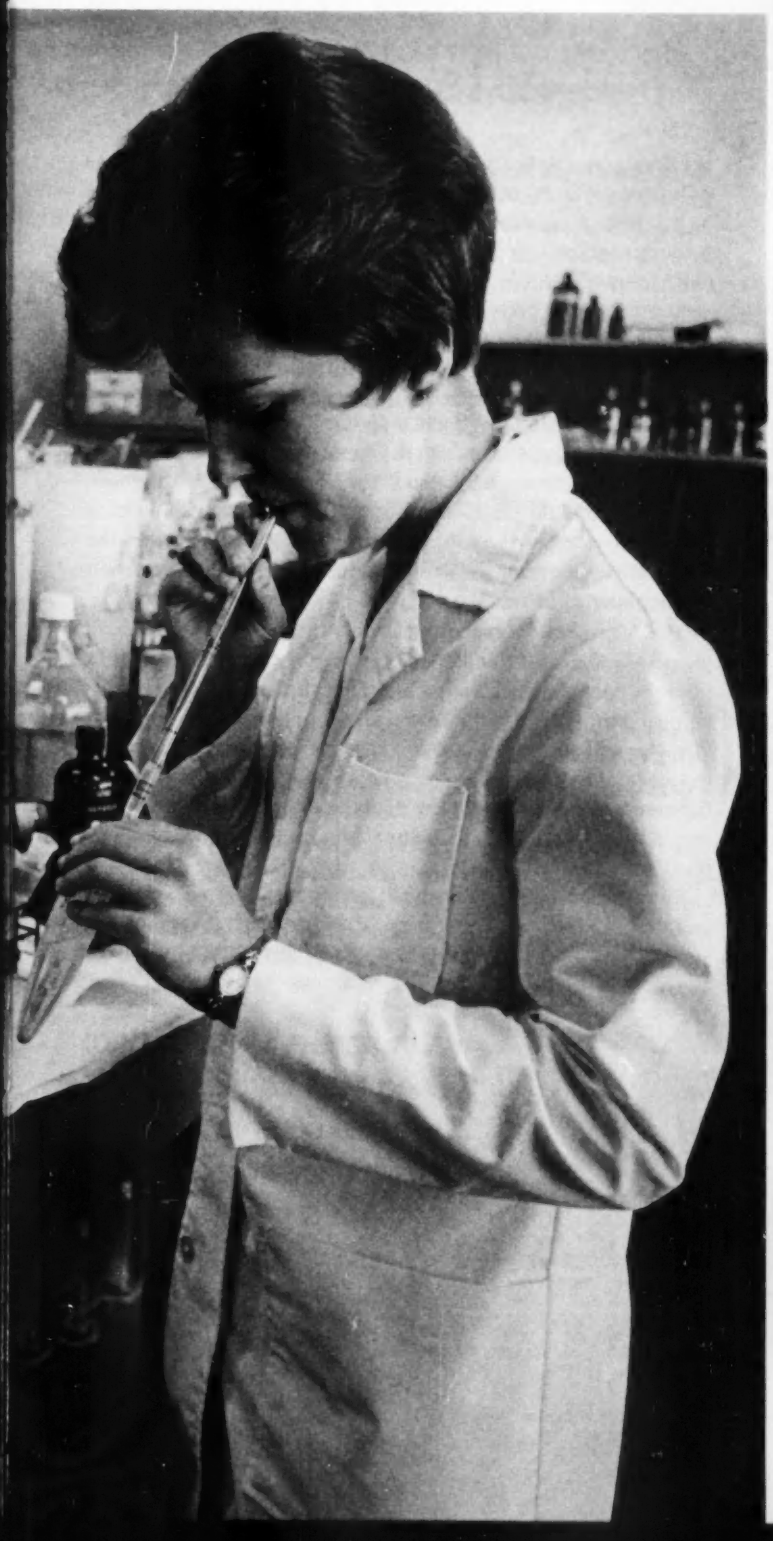
Ideally, returning servicemen and others will take both the proficiency exams and the equivalency exams to explore their career options.

NCCML is working on still another front to widen possibilities for medical laboratory training. In this case, the original intent was to develop retraining materials for inactive laboratory personnel. The average working life of medical lab workers, NCCML spokesmen say, is about 8 years. The majority are women who enter the field, then leave it to marry and have children. When they reenter it after an absence of some years, they find their skills are badly outdated.

The retraining project, funded at $112,000 by the Manpower Administration, has produced a guidebook, "Medical Technology Retraining in Six Months," which was distributed to medical technology schools and to medical laboratories. It describes how to organize retraining classes and suggests course content. A series of taped lectures with slides and printed illustrations suitable for self-study or for small classes also is being produced in this project. Nearly 50 laboratory specialists are working on these materials. Although the project began in order to retrain laboratory workers, the materials can be used for upgrading as well, according to the NCCML.

Taken together, the training materials, proficiency examinations, equivalency examinations, and changing standards for lab employment seem to hold out the promise of greatly increased job mobility in medical laboratories. □





Toward a Manpower Partnership

President Says Revenue Sharing Would Give

Following are excerpts from President Nixon's message to the Congress on the Manpower Revenue Sharing Act.

. . . Ten years ago, the Congress recognized Federal responsibility for comprehensive manpower training by passing the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962. The MDTA and the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 have grown to include over a dozen separate, narrow grant programs, each with its own purposes. Yet, even though manpower programs have grown in number, the need for manpower training has outpaced the capability of these older programs to provide services. Our commitment is strong, but we have not bridged the gap between the promises and the performance of Federal manpower programs. Something better is needed—on this we can all agree.

Like the field of manpower training, many other areas of Federal assistance are suffering from a hardening of governmental arteries. Federal programs are meant to meet the needs of individual citizens living in 50 States and in thousands of communities, but those diverse needs are not being met by rigid, standardized Federal programs. Instead, the pressure on State and local resources is building to the breaking point. The traditional answer would be the establishment of even more separate categories of Federal aid.

Federal aid is needed, but the proliferation of Federal plans, programs, categories, and requirements has compounded the individual problems faced by American communities today. Frequently, Federal involvement has merely generated a false sense of security—a security which has been betrayed by the continuing multiplication of communities' social needs and the failure of government to meet those needs. . . .

All those represented in the current array of patchwork manpower programs—the schools, private employers, public agencies, nonprofit groups, not to mention the unemployed workers—know that the present system is not delivering the jobs, the training, and the other manpower services that this Nation needs and has a right to expect.

As we begin the second decade of comprehensive manpower assistance for unemployed and underemployed citizens we know we must do better, and we can do better. It is time for a change.

Manpower experts throughout the Nation agree that the necessary reform of the Nation's system of manpower training should have as its three basic goals the decategorization, the decentralization, and the consolidation of existing manpower development efforts.

The Manpower Revenue Sharing Act that I have proposed would allow us to achieve these goals. It would benefit citizens in every corner of the Nation and offer renewed hope to members of our society who have lacked opportunity—hope for jobs, for advancement, and for a better standard of living. It would establish a new framework of constructive partnership for manpower training among Federal, State, and local governments. Its principles are simple and fundamental, yet far-reaching.

First, the Manpower Revenue Sharing Act does not mandate any existing categorical program or guarantee its perpetuation—irrespective of its performance—in any community. How-

'. . . the present system is not delivering the jobs, the training, and the other manpower services that this Nation needs and has a right to expect.'

Communities Revenues, Flexibility They Need

'It is time we equipped our local governments with the resources and decisionmaking power to meet their responsibilities.'

ever, it would not prohibit the continuation of any project which a particular locality feels effectively serves its own and its workers' needs. It is time to end the restrictiveness of the old, narrow programs which have frustrated communities' efforts to develop manpower programs geared to their own needs and circumstances.

In its first full year of operation, the Manpower Revenue Sharing Act would provide $2 billion for manpower purposes, of which $1.7 billion would be divided among State and local units of government—without unnecessary red tape—using a formula based on the size of their labor force and the numbers of unemployed and disadvantaged. The remainder would be used by the Secretary of Labor to meet the generalized national needs of this new system.

It would authorize a broad range of services, including:

- Classroom instruction in both remedial education and occupational skills;
- Training on the job with both public and private employers, aided by manpower subsidies;
- Job opportunities, including work experience and short-term employment for special age groups and the temporarily unemployed, and transitional public service employment at all levels of government.

These services, all designed to help move people toward self-supporting employment, augmented by temporary income support, relocation assistance, child care, and other supportive services authorized by the act, would make it possible for our communities to mount integrated manpower development programs truly responsive to their own priority needs.

The second major goal of manpower revenue sharing is to increase substantially reliance upon State and local governments to manage major manpower activities. Local governments are often powerless when jobs are not to be had. It is time we equipped our local governments with the resources and decisionmaking power to meet their responsibilities.

The Manpower Revenue Sharing Act meets this objective. It would provide communities with the resources they need to help get people into jobs and job training. Decisions on what needs to be done to improve specific local manpower conditions cannot and should not be made in Washington. They should be delegated to the area where the unemployed person lives and wants to work.

The third way to move toward a new era in manpower development is through consolidation of the multiple, frequently inconsistent, funding authorizations for manpower activities. Even members of the congressional Appropriations Committees frequently chafe under the unmanageable task of sorting out the confusing array of alphabetical "programs" created by existing manpower enactments. While a good deal of untangling has been done by administrative action, the only durable solution is an overall reform.

The Manpower Revenue Sharing Act would replace the two major pieces of legislation which have spawned most of the acronym programs—the Manpower Development and Training Act and title I of the Economic Opportunity Act—with a single statute which incorporates the flexibility needed by State and local government. . . . □

Publications

Following is a selected list of publications on manpower and related matters. Single copies of publications for which no price is indicated can be obtained free by writing or telephoning the appropriate organization at the following addresses: Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20210; Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20212; Occupational Safety and Health Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20210. Please enclose a self-addressed label with all requests for free publications. For publications not available free, write the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402, and enclose payment.

Manpower Research and Development Projects

Annual Manpower Administration catalog (1971 edition) of research projects has been expanded to include experimental and demonstration projects as well. Describes nearly 500 projects covering wide range of subjects and gives guidelines for submission of research and development proposals.

Establishing a New Career: The Social Health Technician

Manpower Administration report of findings of a pilot project to establish a new subprofessional health position—social health technician—and to open opportunities in this field to the disadvantaged. Specify Research and Development Findings No. 11.

Employee Compensation in the Private Nonfarm Economy, 1968

Bulletin presents results of Bureau of Labor Statistics' second biennial study of employer expenditures for employee compensation in private nonfarm economy. Data are tabulated on level and structure of compensation in all industries and separately for manufacturing and nonmanufacturing. Information is shown separately for office and nonoffice employees. Specify Bulletin 1722. 60 cents.

A Handbook for Upgrading Low-Skilled Workers

Manpower Administration handbook brings together experience and findings of over 4 years of research and demonstration work in upgrading underemployed workers in the plant environment. Contains generalized procedural and methodological guidelines for program planning, development, operation, and evaluation, and an appendix on marketing in-plant programs. Handbook can be an aid to training professionals to run in-plant programs. Specify Research and Demonstration Findings No. 13.

Veterans! Train for a Skilled Trade Through Apprenticeship

Manpower Administration folder (1971 revision) informs veterans about the apprenticeship program, and lists 79 occupations which require 2 or more years of apprenticeship training.

The Job Corps

Manpower Administration 1971 revision of leaflet describing opportunities available to disadvantaged youth through residential training offered by the Job Corps. 20 cents.

Negro Employment in the South Volume 2—the Memphis Labor Market

Second in a series of Manpower Administration monographs on studies of Negro employment in the South. Analyzes specific Negro employment patterns in Memphis and extent to which these patterns changed between 1966 and 1969. Also examines various programs to improve minority employment opportunities and makes recommendations to improve their effectiveness. Specify Manpower Research Monograph No. 23. 65 cents.

Fact Sheet for Small Businesses On Obtaining Compliance Loans

Occupational Safety and Health Administration flyer outlines procedures on how small business establishments can obtain assistance in applying for Small Business Administration loans to aid them in meeting occupational safety and health standards.

The Job Scene

A series of 22 8-page color cartoon booklets for disadvantaged youth. The first four listed below are motivational; each of the others explains jobs in a specific occupation. Limited quantities are available from the Manpower Administration.

- How to Get a Job
- You're Hired!
- Power Is Green
- Where Now, Vet?
- Careers in Apparel
- Auto Mechanic
- Carpentry
- Clerical Work
- Dairy Products
- A Drafting Career
- Electronics Worker
- Careers in Fabricated Plastics
- The Food Field
- Furniture Making as a Career
- Health Work
- Hotel and Restaurant Careers
- Machine Shop Work
- Careers in Motor Transport
- Office Machine Careers
- Careers in Public Utility
- Retail Sales Work
- Welding

Occupational Characteristics of Urban Workers, 1970

Bureau of Labor Statistics booklet explores major differences in occupational distribution of employment among large metropolitan areas and between their central cities and suburban rings. Also attempts to determine whether such skill differences have any direct bearing on disparity between central city and suburban unemployment rates. Specify Special Labor Force Report 138.

Recordkeeping Requirements for Farmers Under Williams-Steiger Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970.

Occupational Safety and Health Administration booklet on recordkeeping responsibilities of farm employers. Includes copies of OSHA recordkeeping forms and display poster stating purpose and scope of Williams-Steiger Act.

Employment Situation of Vietnam Era Veterans, 1971

Bureau of Labor Statistics booklet discusses problems of newly discharged servicemen between 1969 and mid-1971. Specify Special Labor Force Report 137.

Industry Wage Survey: Paperboard Containers and Boxes, March 1970

Bulletin summarizes results of survey of wages and supplementary benefits in paperboard containers and boxes industries by Bureau of Labor Statistics in March 1970. Specify Bulletin 1719. $1.25.

Handy Reference Guide to the Williams-Steiger Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970

Occupational Safety and Health Administration pocket-size 26-page guide describes the coverage, purpose, penalties, and other items every employer should know about the Williams-Steiger Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970. 20 cents.

100 Questions and Answers About OSHA

Booklet answers 100 most frequently asked questions about Occupational Safety and Health Act. Contains sections on compliance, standards, recordkeeping, State programs, and several other categories. Available from Occupational Safety and Health Administration.

Safety and Health Training Resources Handbook

A 150-page reference book published by the Federal Safety Advisory Council covers safety and health training programs and materials which may be obtained from Federal agencies. Available from Occupational Safety and Health Administration.

Publications of the Bureau of Labor Statistics—January-June 1971

Alphabetic annotated bibliography by subject of publications released by the headquarters and regional offices of the Bureau of Labor Statistics from January through June 1971.

manpower—word of many meanings

man·pow·er (man′pou′ĕr) -people, jobs, poverty, employment and unemployment, transportation, education, economics, housing, training, health services, upgrading, apprenticeship, research.

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Over the past three decades the rural work force has changed dramatically. Mechanization has sharply reduced the number of farmworkers while nonfarm employment has increased substantially. For a discussion of these trends and their implications, see *Manpower Policies and Rural America* in this issue of MANPOWER.